

Homemaking Education
in the High School

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THIS BOOK IS DEDICATED
TO OUR MOTHERS

If I can supply you with a thought
You may remember and you may not.
But if I can make you think a thought for yourself
I have indeed added to your stature.

ELBERT HUBBARD

Preface

This book, as originally written and now revised, is addressed to you who are homemaking teachers young in experience or, perhaps, as yet only student teachers in college preparing to teach. Our experiences in working with you have shown us that you are enthusiastic, interested in your work, sincerely interested in high-school pupils, eager to be good teachers, and eager to keep up-to-date in your profession.

Homemaking education should always be flexible and adaptable. It must continually adjust to changing conditions if it is to be effective. But it must keep its basic philosophy intact; namely, that its central purpose is to develop persons capable of shaping for themselves a satisfying home and family life.

Just as when this book was first written, teaching consists of studying the group to be taught and the situation in which that group lives; determining the objectives to be sought; making plans for reaching those objectives; following these plans; evaluating the resulting progress toward the chosen objectives, and, at times, repeating certain of these activities until the objectives are successfully reached. But more than ever today teaching is recognized as a co-operative enterprise in which pupils and often parents share responsibility.

Emphasis upon learning the ways of democracy by living them in the school makes co-operative planning and working together in the classroom and problem-solving especially important. The homemaking teacher today is expected to carry more responsibilities than were expected of her twenty years ago. She may teach boys' classes or co-educational classes in family living. She may advise a chapter of Future Homemakers or New Homemakers of America. She is often a counselor of girls. She may teach or supervise adult classes, and her community responsibili-

ties are likely to be numerous. In this revision, therefore, we have given consideration to all of these and the emphasis formerly given to teacher-pupil co-operation in planning and doing, and to problem-solving has been increased.

Visual aids have always been used to a large extent in the home-economics classroom. But a greatly increased emphasis is now placed upon audio-visual aids in all phases of education. For this reason we have given special attention to the use which the homemaking teacher may make of both audio- and visual materials.

In this edition we have been guided by the same basic philosophy of homemaking education formerly expressed. But, recognizing changes that have taken place in family life and in education, we have revised much of the material in the earlier editions and also included new material which may help you keep up-to-date in your profession. We hope you will find in these pages concrete help to make your teaching vital, dynamic, and satisfying.

M. W.

M. S. L.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

High-school homemaking teachers, supervisors, and student teachers have offered many suggestions for materials to be incorporated in this book. We have deeply appreciated their help.

We are especially grateful for the thoughtful analysis of the book that was made by a group of teacher-educators, who upon our request recommended changes, when *this second revision* was being planned. Many wrote us encouraging letters and gave us ideas which we have found most helpful.

We also wish to express appreciation to Mr. Leonard Feinberg, who read the manuscript, for his co-operation and for his excellent suggestions.

M. W.

M. S. L.

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Homemaking Education
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~ CHAPTER I ~

The Successful Teacher of Homemaking

What makes a successful teacher of homemaking? There seems to be no agreement among the various answers to the question, *What makes a good teacher?* One prominent educator said many years ago that all homemaking teachers should be married. At that time married women were, quite generally, *not accepted as teachers, but today over a third of the homemaking teachers are married women.*¹ There is, however, no evidence that married women are better teachers of *homemaking than the unmarried.*

A certificate granting a legal right to teach is required for teachers in every state, but this legal right does not guarantee success. No superintendent of schools selects a teacher on the basis of legal requirements only, and no one concerned with the education of teachers makes recommendations on the basis of legal requirements, graduation from college, or homemaking experience alone. Many studies have been made, *in an attempt to forecast success in teaching, but no study or group of studies has been conclusive.*² The education faculty

¹ Committee on Research and Publications, "Factors Affecting the Satisfaction of Home Economics Teachers," AVA Research Bulletin No. 3 (Washington, D.C., American Vocational Association, Inc., 1943).

² For a review of studies, see Sandiford, Cameron, Conway, and Long, "Forecasting Teaching Ability," Department of Education Research Bulletin No. 8, (Toronto, Canada, University of Toronto, not dated).

Also A. S. Barr and others, *The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching*

of Stanford University in their book, *The Challenge of Education*, have claimed that for any teacher a well-adjusted personality, understanding of and interest in children, a rich personal life, social responsibility, social acceptability, practical knowledge of psychology, and broad scholarship are important for success.

A study of student-teacher rating devices and of the opinions of many educators, and the observation of many teachers of home economics suggest that a successful homemaking teacher possesses what most people call "personality," is physically fit, knows and is interested in girls and their home problems, knows her subject matter, understands and participates in school and community activities, lives a broad personal life, is at ease in social situations, has a sound philosophy of education, and is skillful in the use of teaching techniques.

Until further scientific studies determine for us the definite characteristics of a good teacher, we can only consider here those which experienced educators think important, and interpret them as they relate to the field of homemaking education.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND SUCCESS

Personal characteristics. If you ask pupils to describe a teacher whom they think is a good teacher you will receive such answers as these: "She is interested in us," "She is so enthusiastic about her work," "She has made the rooms so attractive," or "She makes the work so interesting." Describing someone whom they consider a poor teacher they will frequently say: "She is sarcastic," "She does not care about us," "The work is not interesting," "She does not dress well," or "She is not neat."

A study of good and poor teachers of social studies reported by Barr in 1929 is still of interest to prospective teachers. He reported:³

Personal qualities are very important ones from the standpoint of supervision. It is very difficult for some supervisors to distinguish between good-looking teachers and good teachers. From the evidence at hand, it seems that when judged by personal appearance, personal charm, and attractiveness, poor teachers have the advantage over good teachers. Good teachers, however, showed marked superiority in physical vigor and in enthusiasm; many poor teachers showed an absence of these qualities. Very few writers have placed sufficient emphasis upon energy, vitality, and alertness as prerequisites to teaching success. Good teachers showed superior self-control (this is to be expected), less reserve and greater earnestness. There was really a marked difference in the amount of self-control shown by good teachers when compared with poor teachers. Good teachers are much more appreciative, more sympathetic, and much pleasanter on the whole, than poor teachers. In this connection, as has already been noted, good teachers were in the habit of nodding appreciatively, commenting favorably and smiling as they worked with their pupils in the classroom. So marked is this practice among good teachers and so noticeably absent among poor teachers... that it is almost possible to judge the quality of teaching by the number of nods and smiles distributed about the class during a certain period. Good teachers also usually possessed a better speaking voice and a keener sense of humor... Finally, poor teachers possessed... a number of negative attributes not found among good teachers; some were sarcastic, some dictatorial, and others indifferent.

A good teacher is a good leader. A leader is one who influences the thinking, attitudes, and actions of people. Therefore a good teacher should have those qualities which are needed for leadership. But what are those qualities? Here too we find no general agreement. Haiman⁴ has said that a leader who releases the creative talents of a group must be a well-adjusted personality, and must have respect for and be concerned about other human beings. He must be sensi-

³ A. S. Barr, *Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies* (Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Co., 1929), pp. 72-75, 116.

⁴ Franklyn S. Haiman, *Group Leadership and Democratic Action* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951).

tive to the moods of the group with which he is working. He must have knowledge. He must have a sense of humor. He must be able to verbalize, that is, express ideas clearly and easily. He must be enthusiastic, yet mature and patient. His energy must be used for useful purposes.

Yough * pointed out that there is no agreement concerning what qualities are necessary for good group leadership, but he listed, as of first importance, intelligence, a liberal attitude, enthusiasm, friendliness, and integrity. He also said that a highly successful leader may be inconspicuous. Others have described qualities which are needed for good teaching in terms of a feeling of security, emotional adjustment, independence, and social adjustment.

Writing about college teachers, Tead * stated that good teachers know their subject matter, are enthusiastic over helping others learn, are interested in young people, and patient with the way others think. They need vitality and physical stamina. They need a positive outlook on life. They need to be citizens of the community in which they live. He said, "In short, the good teacher needs to be a good person." What Tead wrote of college teachers may also be considered pertinent to home-economics teachers.

A nationwide study of the satisfactions of home-economics teachers was published by the American Vocational Association in 1948.⁷ In that study, 97.4 per cent of the large group investigated indicated that one of their greatest satisfactions in teaching was "helping pupils develop in worth-while ways." According to this report, interest in young people is a characteristic of home-economics teachers but there is no evidence that it is a trait confined to good teachers; in fact,

* Wilber A. Yough, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949).

* Ordway Tead, *College Teaching and College Learning* (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1949).

⁷ Committee on Research and Publications, "Factors Affecting the Satisfactions of Home Economics Teachers," *op. cit.*

inasmuch as almost 100 per cent expressed such interest, the trait obviously does not discriminate between good and poor teachers.

A study of homemaking teachers in one state indicates some differences between good and poor teachers which are worth consideration.* Three supervisors and two teacher trainers selected thirty-six teachers for the study. Twelve of these were considered outstanding teachers, twelve were considered above average, and twelve non-proficient. These teachers were studied through interviews with superintendents, teachers, high-school pupils, and mothers of high-school pupils. Results showed that all of the outstanding teachers:

1. Had broad interests
2. Were enthusiastic about teaching
3. Were able to express beliefs which they also practised in their own personal living
4. Had developed confidence of their pupils in them and in turn showed confidence in the pupils
5. Guided pupils in immediate problems
6. Planned co-operatively with pupils
7. Worked co-operatively with pupils in improving and maintaining the department
8. Co-operated with other departments
9. Used the school and community facilities in their teaching
10. Co-operated with community groups on community projects
11. Were consulted by others, including parents

On the other hand, the non-proficient teachers:

1. Varied in their scope of interests; half of them had limited interests
2. Lacked enthusiasm
3. Were not clear in their thinking
4. Had little confidence in themselves
5. Had unsatisfactory relationships with pupils
6. Were ineffective in guidance
7. Did the planning themselves

* *Characteristic Differences among Homemaking Teachers of Varying Proficiency* (Lansing, Michigan, The Department of Education, Michigan State College, and State Board of Control for Vocational Education, August, 1944).

8. Did not improve their departments
9. Used few school or community facilities in their work
10. Gave little if any co-operation to community groups
11. Were seldom consulted for advice by other teachers or parents

The writer also stated that "knowledge of subject matter and health contribute considerably to high achievement." Little difference between the good and the poor teachers was evident in personal appearance, social ease, poise, tact, and courtesy or in the use of English and voice.

A home-economics teacher is and should be like other teachers. She should have a personality through which she can and does develop good personal relationship with pupils, with other teachers, with school administrators, and with people in the community.

Developing one's personality. It used to be believed that *good teachers were born and not made*. It also used to be accepted that one's personality was fixed and could not be changed after one reached maturity. Now, however, it is believed that it is within one's power to improve personality, *if the purpose to do so is within oneself*. Traits cannot be developed for someone else. Development must be accomplished for oneself and by oneself.

It is important that you as a prospective teacher recognize the qualities you have that will help you to succeed and those that may delay or prevent the success you want. Working faithfully to overcome weaknesses that can be corrected, and to develop those characteristics which you do not possess, will help you to succeed. You should also recognize, without conceit, those good traits which are your strongest points. These, too, you should try to strengthen, for your very finest trait, supremely developed, may compensate for a weaker one and carry you to success.

The experienced teacher may also find a self-analysis valuable. Why is she successful with this piece of work? or why, for instance, does she find supervising the study hall

so difficult? Perhaps her success or her difficulty is due to personal qualities. She, too, can increase her teaching success by developing her desirable characteristics to the maximum and improving her weak ones.

No one knows yet the best way to evaluate personality or to develop it, but we do know that we are born with certain potentialities, that we develop those potentialities through the years, and that one's experiences are all-important in determining the direction of one's development and the extent to which the potentialities are achieved. *You can develop in character or personality if you have a strong purpose to do so. If you are a timid person, you cannot become brave overnight; neither will poise and self-confidence grow like mushrooms; but a plan of procedure carefully, consistently, and continually followed will accomplish a great deal.*

The physical part of us is the most obvious and perhaps the easiest to improve. Of course you cannot change your height or the color of your eyes, but you can improve your personal appearance. You can keep your hair well-groomed, your skin clean and healthy looking, your posture good, your clothes in good taste and well cared for. *You can so dress your hair that it improves your appearance; you can so choose your clothes that you emphasize your best features and subordinate your poor ones.*

Knowledge and use of accepted social customs should certainly be an attribute of any person who works with people. There are customary forms of expression and of social usage that one needs to know and use in order to live and work well with people.

Our ways of doing all the everyday things, from the moment we begin a day till its close, our entrances and exits, our manner of sitting and rising, speaking, walking, talking, meeting friends, giving orders, doing business, entertaining and being entertained, going here and there about the earth, form the exterior which is all most people ever get of us. There may be pure gold deep down inside, but we can't ask

the busy world to stop and mine us to find it out. The evidences of its being there had better come to the surface in the "happy way" if we want to be appreciated; to get the most out of living, and to give the most. We owe it to ourselves—and those with whom we travel—to be a pleasure person. Some of the most worthy people in the world go unloved and unappreciated to their graves because of their bad manners.*

The emotional elements of one's personality are the most elusive, the most difficult to recognize in oneself, and the most difficult to change. We have reactions which we can acquire some ability to control. For instance, if you are an emotionally mature person, you will have acquired some ability to wait for results, to accept the consequences of your own actions, to face reality. You can improve certain of these abilities to control your emotional reactions.

Now, let us summarize. What can you do to improve yourself?

First: You can study yourself—your physical capabilities and limitations; your mental qualities; your emotional adjustment and maturity.

Second: You can face yourself as you are.

Third: You can read widely in the field of personality development, mental hygiene, and personal adjustment.

Fourth: You can study other people.

Fifth: You can broaden your experiences in living.

Sixth: With the help of an experienced adviser, you can set for yourself an achievable goal.

Seventh: You can formulate for yourself a plan of action for the coming months and years which, followed consistently, will help you develop toward your goal.

PERSONAL LIFE AND SUCCESS

A wholesome personal life gives balance to one's professional life. Teachers need not live narrow, restricted lives,

* Anne Shannon Monroe, *Singing in the Rain* (New York, Doubleday, Doran, and Co., 1928), p. 188.

and you as a teacher may make your personal life what you will. You are, or should be, a person who lives a normal, wholesome life with interests other than your work. Your county and your town have much of interest, no matter how small they are, and if you look with eyes that see and listen with ears that hear, you will find a wealth of interest in things around you. You will not want to be a person at one time and a teacher at another, but at all times a person teaching, contributing to and receiving from the community in which you live.

Teachers are social beings whose happiness in life depends in large measure on the relations they have established with their families, their friends, their co-workers, and their students. Not only his own personal happiness but the success he will have in teaching and the welfare of the boys and girls he teaches will have their roots in the emotional security which each teacher has in his social relations. Whether or not a teacher can provide an atmosphere conducive to mental hygiene for his students, whether he can help his students to attain some measure of emotional relaxation will depend to some extent upon the success he has in his own relationships with people and the insight he has attained into the causes of his own frustrations and defeats.¹⁰

Home-economics teachers want to live where they feel at home, where they can be independent, and where they can have their friends visit them. This is one implication of the relation between satisfactions in teaching and a teacher's living arrangements as shown by the national study mentioned before. Living under such conditions, you can be a "social being" and can establish friendly social relations with others. This is important.

You may be interested in analyzing the breadth and richness of your own experiences by answering the following questions:

1. Are you a participating member of a social organization? A church organization?

¹⁰ Lois Hayden Meek and others, *Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls with Implications for Secondary Education* (New York, Committee on Workshops, Progressive Education Association, 1940), p. 83.

2. Have you sponsored a group of young girls such as Campfire? Girl Scouts? Rainbow? 4-H Club? Have you been a member?
3. Have you taken such active part in organizations that you are at ease in the use of parliamentary procedures?
4. Have you worked with groups sufficiently that you can contribute to a group discussion and speak easily before a group of people?
5. Do you belong to some fraternal organization?
6. Have you played bridge often enough to play acceptably well?
7. Have you had sufficient experience in social groups that you are at ease and can converse easily?
8. Do you dance acceptably well?
9. Do you play tennis? Golf? Do you skate? Ski? Hike? Camp?
10. Have you led or directed group sports or games?
11. Have you assisted with group music?
12. Have you taken part in dramatics?
13. Have you talked over the radio?
14. Have you traveled outside your own home and college communities?
15. Have you earned money for yourself?
16. Have you worked with some business firm where it was necessary for you to meet and adjust to people quickly?
17. Do you read books and select them with discrimination?
18. Do you read the daily paper? Weekly news digest? A weekly or monthly magazine of general interest?
19. Do you read and converse about current social and political movements?
20. Have you ever seen your state or national legislative bodies at work?
21. Have you attended a concert given by a famous orchestra? Musician?
22. Have you attended grand opera?
23. Do you select the movies you see and the radio programs you hear with discrimination?
24. Have you attended sport contests?
25. Have you attended field meets?

HOME EXPERIENCE AND SUCCESS

It has been said, "Those who can, do; those who can't, teach." This is, of course, a friendly thrust at the teacher. In home economics it should not be true in any sense. The teacher of home economics should be a well-dressed woman,

be a good manager, be able to serve excellent meals, and be able to work well with people.

Psychologists tell us that we learn by doing. It is doubtful that one can learn homemaking simply by studying it in college classes. Class experience undoubtedly needs to be supplemented by home living and practical experience. Of course nearly every girl who reaches her senior year in college has lived for some twenty years, more or less, as a member of a family group, sometimes with considerable responsibility, sometimes with very little. The home of the twentieth century, with its small family, few rooms, labor-saving devices, custom-made clothes, and factory-prepared food, does not demand the active participation of several members of the family in order to make the mechanical phases run smoothly. The growing girl of today is interested in many things outside of the home; when there are few demands in the home, she naturally does not carry much responsibility and may have only limited homemaking experience. Therefore, a prospective homemaking teacher needs to review her past experience and if it has been meager plan to gain the home experience she needs.

If you will think of the teacher's job for a few minutes, you will readily acknowledge the following reasons for expecting that home-economics teachers should have vocational—that is, homemaking—experiences:

1. Doing a thing insures learning it.
2. Doing a thing oneself helps develop an appreciation of its value and its difficulty.
3. Doing things herself in a home situation helps a teacher understand the high-school girl in her home relations.
4. Knowing about home problems from one's own experience enables one to help others with similar problems.
5. Having had successful homemaking experience inspires confidence in the teacher on the part of parents.

Securing home experience. If you are in college, for nine months of the year and sometimes more, you are usually boarding and rooming. During this time you have little opportunity to carry responsibility for home activities. When you go home for the summer vacation, you may be more or less the guest of the family or you may be earning money to complete your college course. In any event, you may have slipped out of the routine of family life. The girl who is in college is very often cut off for most of four years from opportunities to gain the homemaking experience that would be of value to her in the years to come.

Some colleges require summer projects in the home-economics curriculum, by which a student may be expected to do a certain amount of clothing construction between her freshman and sophomore years and foods work between her sophomore and junior years. This insures a limited amount of practical experience before graduation although not enough to develop necessary skill. The home-management house also provides opportunity for experience, especially in the managerial field, and for this purpose has become a recognized part of the college curriculum in home economics. But after all, the best way for you to gain experience is to assume as much responsibility for a home situation as conditions will allow. You might give your mother a vacation for a summer; both of you will profit from it.

If you have worked your way through college by helping in homes and at institutional affairs, you have gained vocational experience in a most worth-while way, though perhaps unfortunately at the expense of some of your social development or even of your health. Yet from the standpoint of later teaching efficiency, you may well consider it a privilege to assume every responsibility in the homemaking field for which you have an opportunity. You may wish to make a list of your homemaking experiences and see what further experience you should try to acquire.

Standards of experience. Of course, all of your experience may not be as good as it looks on paper. It is quite possible for you to have done many things in a home and yet to have been satisfied with a standard of accomplishment far below what would be expected of a teacher. Have the meals you planned been well prepared and served? Have clothes you made been artistically and appropriately designed? It is when the standards are sound that the experience will be valuable.

For approval to teach vocational homemaking in schools subsidized by the National Vocational Education Acts, most states require two years of home experience. This has been interpreted to mean two years as a daughter in a home.

It should not be assumed from all this emphasis that vocational experience is more important than ability to teach or than understanding of girls and their homes. Actual teaching ability is extremely important to any home-economics teacher. Given a fine personality and vocational experience, with no ability to teach and no understanding of girls and their home environment, you will not be a success; but, all other things being equal, an increased amount of vocational experience of the best quality will increase your chance of success.

IMPORTANCE OF UNDERSTANDING GIRLS, PEOPLE, HOMES, FAMILIES, AND COMMUNITIES

If you as a homemaking teacher are to plan with your girls as well as for them, and so to guide their planning that your co-operative experiences develop them both in personal and in family living, you will find it indispensable to know each girl as an individual and also as she is in her own home surroundings. How much responsibility does she carry at home? What are her chief interests and ambitions? What is

her mental level? Emotional maturity? Is she well-adjusted to her family? To the school? What are her dominant traits? In what kind of a home does she live? How happy are the relations in her family? On what economic and social level does her family live?

An understanding of practical psychology is of infinite value in helping one to understand people. A study of mental hygiene and also objective observance of behavior of people are valuable. Experiences with little children in a preschool laboratory, or with older ones in a Sunday-school class, in a Campfire group, or on a playground will also increase your understanding. Watching, working with, playing with people, both children and grownups, will pay big dividends in your professional life.

When one leaves college and enters professional work, one's life is not bound by home and college but is as broad as society itself; and the ability to think, act, and work with local, state, and national groups becomes more important. Teachers are looked upon as leaders in social thinking even on controversial subjects. So, for the modern teacher, just a knowledge of the community is insufficient. Active participation in community life in those activities in which other normal people are interested is advisable.

How well do you understand community life? To what extent can you participate intelligently in social movements? How well do you know the various communities in which you have lived? How much do you know about the business and professional men and women in your home town? About the labor unions? Merchant groups? Social welfare? Relief organizations? Forums? Library? How socially conscious are you?

Knowing girls, homes, and community is so important for homemaking teachers that much more should be said than can well be discussed at this point; therefore, a later chapter will be devoted to means of gaining this knowledge. (See Chapter V.)

IMPORTANCE OF A PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION, AND OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES

Education for homemaking draws upon many subject-matter fields and contributes to others. For this reason, if for no other, you need to develop a sound philosophy of your own field. You need to have a thorough understanding of the purposes of education in general—of how you, in the area of education for home living, can do your bit toward developing integrated individuals. What is the function of the school? What is the function of your particular part in the school? What can homemaking contribute to the total school program? What part does it play in vocational education? What are its objectives and what is its relation to the other objectives of education? Shall your work aim at true homemaking ability? Shall it aim at developing the ability to carry the responsibilities of the home helper? Shall it aim at personal development and personal care only? Shall it aim at family living? Shall you plan to develop greater interest in home responsibilities? Shall you plan to develop the applications of homemaking principles or merely an understanding of them? Shall you answer these questions by yourself or in co-operation with your pupils? With parents? With other teachers in the school? These are questions you will meet and have to answer.

A good teacher is skillful in the use of teaching methods and techniques which are effective when working with people. As mentioned before, a person may know her subject and not be able to teach. Every college has men who are experts, who are authorities in their lines of work, but who are unable to develop young people under their charge, that is, to teach them. A woman may herself be expert in the guidance of little children but not be able to develop similar ability in a high-school girl. She may herself be able to make a beautiful gown but be unable to teach another to do so.

One teacher obtains splendid results in construction work, another does not; one teacher has keen interest in her class, another does not; one can secure keen thinking and good group discussion, another has a listless class. Good results are not achieved by chance. They come from skillful use of teaching techniques.

LEGAL QUALIFICATIONS FOR TEACHING HOMEMAKING

Because of variation in the legal or certification requirements in different states, it is inadvisable to make any definite statements here concerning them. The student who looks forward to teaching home economics in any particular state should learn its requirements from the State Department of Public Instruction.

Qualifications for teaching home economics in schools approved under the National Vocational Education Acts are frequently higher and more rigid than those required by law for schools not receiving aid authorized by these acts. Such teaching requirements are determined in each state by the State Board for Vocational Education. Requirements vary somewhat from state to state. For day schools in home economics these requirements usually include as a minimum:

1. A Bachelor of Arts (or Science) degree, with a major in home economics, from a college or university approved by the State Board for Vocational Education, and with certain technical and related course requirements.
2. Courses in education including special methods and supervised teaching in home economics.
3. A certificate to teach in the state in question.

Satisfying the legal requirements to teach, either in vocational or general home economics, does not, however, imply

that you will secure a position or that you will hold it. Getting and holding a position will depend upon how well you meet the other qualifications discussed in this chapter.

PROBLEMS

1. Think of two teachers of home economics whom you know, one considered a good teacher and the other a poor or mediocre teacher. Analyze their characteristics. How favorably do they compare with the characteristics essential to success in teaching home economics as given in this chapter?

2. Think of two teachers of any subject other than home economics, one of whom has been highly successful and the other unsuccessful or mediocre. Analyze their characteristics also; evaluate them by the essential teaching characteristics as listed in this chapter. What similarities and differences do you see in the qualifications demanded for success as a teacher of home economics and as a teacher in other fields?

3. If you are an undergraduate student, plan what you will need to do while completing your college course in order to qualify yourself for a certificate to teach home economics, and also for being approved to teach in a vocational school.

4. Mr. Raymond was very proud of Julia, who was in the eighth grade and was taking home economics. The girl was interested in her sewing, and without any suggestions from her teacher, made a simple wash dress at home. Her father praised her for it and suggested that she take it to school and show it to the home-economics teacher. "Oh, no! I wouldn't do that for anything," she said.

What possible reasons can you suggest for her answer?

5. Mary Allen, a junior in college, is looking forward with keen interest to teaching home economics. She wants to be a successful teacher. Although she has worked part of her way through college, she has been able to play volley ball one year and has attended the meetings of the Young Women's Christian Association on the campus. She dresses in fair taste but would never be pointed out as an example of a well-dressed girl. She is quiet when in a group and is slow about expressing herself or about suggesting ideas, although her judgment is usually good when she does so. She realizes that she lacks initiative, enthusiasm, social poise, and other traits. She has done clerical work during the summer and during off hours in her college course and has, therefore, not been able to assume homemaking responsibilities as much as she would have liked. She will need to continue working part-time to complete her college course.

Give this girl some definite suggestions for living on the campus, and for contacts with people in the next two years, that will insure for

her some development of those traits and abilities she has learned are important to achieve success in teaching home economics.

6. Miss Bond graduated from a four-year course in home economics in a standard college. Her home had always been in a large city, and she was an only daughter of a father with comfortable means. She had never carried great responsibility at home but had always helped with the housework under her mother's direction. She was a good student at college, had a pleasing personality and social poise. This girl accepted a position in a rural consolidated school of about one hundred pupils. What advice would you give to her in order that she might adapt her homemaking practices to this new situation?

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~ CHAPTER II ~

Philosophy of Homemaking Education

Before proceeding further, it seems advisable to give consideration to the philosophy that underlies homemaking education, for whatever responsibilities you assume as a home-economics teacher, and how you assume them, will depend upon your philosophy of homemaking, of education, and of life. Many of the beliefs that direct your action may have been acquired by absorption from your past experiences and may have been unchallenged by yourself or anyone else among your acquaintances. Other beliefs may be the result of a good deal of observation, of study and investigation, and of much careful weighing of findings and opinions, so that what you now believe is really the result of your own mature judgment. Probably up to this time you have not given much consideration to the making of carefully drawn conclusions about some of the important questions which are of concern to forward-looking home-economics teachers.

Events of the past decade have stimulated much questioning of whether education as now carried on is worth the cost and the effort, and whether the efforts are being applied in the right direction and toward the most desirable ends. Naturally home economics has received its share of scrutiny. What should be taught in home economics? How should it be taught? Just what is the function of home-economics education? Is its function to prepare for future home responsi-

bilities? To aid in meeting present home responsibilities? Or to help students to meet their everyday personal problems? Is *homemaking education more closely related to vocational education or to general education*, or does it have an equally important place in both? These are some of the questions you need to face squarely and seek diligently to answer for yourself whether you are a prospective teacher, or one already in the field who is trying to give the best leadership possible in her community.

EVOLUTION OF BELIEFS CONCERNING HOME ECONOMICS

The following quotations show how far from agreement educators have been about the function of home economics in the field of education, and how thought concerning its function has evolved.

Home economics: a group of related subjects. Bonser expressed the philosophy of home economics in 1930 as follows: ¹

The conception of home economics which we believe to be sound, and which is developing as practicable in some schools, is that of a group of closely related subjects in which, and through which, the various elements constitute a comprehensive whole, representing the personal and family needs of girls and women. . . . Out of all of these contributing factors, giving them place and perspective, a philosophy of home life should be developed. By a philosophy of home life is not meant an abstract, detached conception. Few high school girls or even adults would be able to formulate such a philosophy in academic terms. But there could and should be developed a body of ideals, attitudes, convictions, purposes, understandings, and loyalties.

Home economics: a way of living. Lawrence Frank also expressed his views in 1930 in these words: ²

¹ Frederick Bonser, "Outstanding Problems Confronting Home Economics in the High Schools," *School Life*, Vol. 16 (February, 1930), p. 109.

² Lawrence Frank, "Training in Homemaking Contributes to Higher Standards of Living," *School Life*, Vol. 16 (November, 1930), pp. 41-42.

Homemaking is more than a job or a profession; it is a way of living, and it calls for a kind of educational experience that transcends anything which we have considered heretofore as vocational or professional training. In the first place, it calls for an understanding of human nature and an insight into human behavior which no mere professional training or series of courses can convey. . . . If we are to help young people to live more intelligently and sanely, we cannot content ourselves with teaching skills or developing mere vocational proficiency. We must educate for the future and the kind of life which those young people are going to live ten or more years from now. . . . It would seem that the only reason for invoking vocational efficiency as our guide and of appealing to vocational interests in our students was our inability to get outside the usual pre-occupation with subjects and departments and courses. If we are determined to set up specific subject matter which must be taught, then it may be necessary for us to work in terms of a vocational program and depend upon a vocational interest. By way of contrast, however, if we are prepared to accept the conception of homemaking as a way of living and a product of experiencing, particularly in the field of aesthetic experience and the gaining of understanding and insights, it would be safe to say that we did not need to rely upon a desultory vocational interest. . . .

Home economics: a vocation. In an address given before the Fourth National Conference of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics in 1929, James E. Russell said: *

First, homemaking is the noblest of professions and the sorriest of trades, and second the wife and mother makes her job a trade or a profession according as she fits herself for it.

A profession differs from a trade in the extent and character of the knowledge required and in the ideals which it sets up. The girl in the home who works under mother's direction and supervision, who has tasks which she must perform, and who is required to attain a certain standard of efficiency without over-much understanding of what she does or why she does it, is in reality an apprentice to a trade. But the woman who is self-reliant and self-directive because she knows what she does and why she does it, who has ideals of homemaking which outrun housekeeping, who regards her work not merely in the interests of the family, but as the mainspring of society, such a woman is practicing the finest profession on earth. . . . Home economics has come into our schools to supplement apprentice training given in the

* James E. Russell, "Next Steps in Homemaking," *Progressive Home Economics Education*, Home Economics Letter No. 9 (Washington, D.C., Office of Education, U.S. Department of the Interior, 1929).

home. Perhaps, I might better say, it has come into our schools because apprentice training is no longer given in most homes. . . .

It has been taught as a vocational subject, and certain technical skills have been reckoned as its proper objective. If we have learned anything from teaching vocational subjects it is that a vocational subject cannot be taught easily or successfully to those who have no vocational interest. The will to learn, the desire to succeed, is a necessary prerequisite to success in acquiring vocational skills. . . . No one doubts the presence of vocational interest in girls when engaged to marry or of young mothers when confronted with the rearing of their first born. . . . My conclusion therefore is that a vocational interest is prerequisite to success in teaching household arts. . . . Some enthusiasts facing the problem of homemaking see in the job the whole round of education. They see in the home the need for art, music and literature; for religion, character building and the social graces; for mathematics and all of the sciences; for child care and hygienic surroundings; for house planning, lighting, heating, and plumbing. . . . In a word, the needs of homemaking are co-extensive with life itself, and so include all education. . . . I contend that homemaking is second to no other vocation in the world. Its world-wide reach is evident from the almost infinite variety of its service. On every level there is work to be done in and for the home. And wherever training is given in school for any vocation whatever, there would I give place for training in homemaking. I would supplement the experience of the home and whatever type of vocational training is suited to the intellectual status of the learner. . . . My point is that if we were frankly to agree on vocational efficiency as our great objective, we should be spending our best efforts on finding the best kind of vocational training suited to different levels and to particular needs.

Home economics as homemaking. In 1928 Mrs. S. M. N. Marrs, formerly National President of the Congress of Parents and Teachers, expressed the homemaking viewpoint as follows: *

I cannot tell you what sort of courses you should have in home economics or how these should be taught, but I have watched the developments of this work in my own state and have come to the conclusion that there should be very close cooperation between the home and the school in the teaching of homemaking; that the girl's home should be the laboratory in which she should work. If every home-

* Mrs. S. M. N. Marrs, "The Kind of Home Economics Needed for High-School Girls," Home Economics Letter No. 5 (Washington, D.C., Office of Education, U.S. Department of the Interior, 1928), p. 2.

economics teacher should see fit to have the girl use her own home as a laboratory, her own family problems as a basis for her course of study, and to make the girl feel that she is receiving a practical education in this important subject, it would mean a great deal to the future homemakers. Instead of having theoretical homes and problems to solve, let us have their own homes, with the family budgets and relationships.

In the senior high school the problem is not to teach the girl to cook one dish, but to serve a meal and feed the family; not to sew a seam or make a dress but to plan her own and the family wardrobe within the family budget; not make a few ornaments for the home, but the importance of making the home beautiful inside and out. It is the duty of the high school to teach the girl the value of family relationships and loyalty to the family and community; and to make her feel the value and the importance of child care and child training; in other words fit her for a complete family life. We know that it is the girl who is largely responsible for maintaining the right attitude and relationships within the family. The home economics teacher, more than any other teacher, has the opportunity of planting in the soul of the girl, love for home, family life, and the feeling of sacredness of parenthood. This, after all, is the chief aim of education.

Dr. C. A. Prosser, sometimes called the Father of Vocational Education, writing in 1935, indicated the need for special preparation for homemaking in vocational education as follows: *

In addition to the obstacles and problems confronting the workers in all vocations, including homemakers, the following difficulties and needs, in the opinion of leaders in this field, grow out of the wider conception of the home as a social unit and agency for human welfare, of which the homemaker is the leader and administrator as well as a worker.

It is becoming more of a problem to hold the home together. It is increasingly difficult to adjust to changing housing conditions. It is becoming more important and difficult to secure and maintain desirable home surroundings. It is becoming more necessary to make the home atmosphere an adequate offset to tension of life outside the home.

There is an increased recognition of health as a family asset. It is becoming increasingly difficult to provide proper or adequate recreation in the home. It is increasingly important to make intelligent use of available forms of social services. It is increasingly difficult to bring

* C. A. Prosser, "The Case for Vocational Education," *American Vocational Association Journal*, Vol. 10 (May, 1935), p. 3.

the home up to socially desirable standards. It is becoming more difficult to become competent as a homemaker.

Home economics as family life education. During the third decade of this century the importance of education for family living received added emphasis, and home economics received recognition for its function in such education. A series of quotations from the report of the Educational Policies Commission (1938) shows the viewpoint of that committee concerning the place of education for family life in education as a whole.⁶

One important responsibility of education, therefore, is to improve and develop home and family life. . . .

The teaching of homemaking skills is an important phase of family life education, but as in all education the development of skills should be correlated with the development of an understanding of the dynamics of family relationship and of the family as a changing social institution and with the cultivation of appreciation and insights.

Schools and other agencies of education have a long way to go before offerings in this phase of education will begin to meet the need. Although "worthy home membership" was one of the seven cardinal principles formulated in 1918, education for home and family life is still unknown in many schools and a step-child of the curriculum of others.

With increasing social and political complications, the tasks of operating family life and making needed adjustments in its pattern are increasing in difficulty. Education must bend anew to this work, for the stakes are vital.

Home economists themselves saw the evolving concepts somewhat as Mary Beeman expressed them in 1939.⁷

Education for home and family living has reached the stage of development where emphasis is placed upon social values rather than technical values; where the individual takes precedence over the group, where the development of the individual means awareness of his drives and factors that inhibit or promote his growth by the teacher and the parent.

⁶ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1938), pp. 74, 80-85.

⁷ Mary Beeman, "New Developments in Home Economics Education," *American Vocational Association Journal*, Vol. 14 (September, 1939), p. 142.

But a concept broader than any expressed up to that time was shown in the 1941 yearbooks of two national organizations of educators. Family living was seen by them to be basic to all education for all people—boys and girls, men and women.*

If homemaking and family life and the rearing of children are to be viewed as opportunities for living and for enjoyment of life, then homemaking education must contrive to present the tasks of home management and housekeeping and child care in terms that men can share, *without embarrassment and reluctance, enjoying homemaking and the caring and rearing of children.*

Another group of educators expressed a similar idea: †

The family is an institution founded on basic human relations. Family living goes on in a place called home. In this place, husband, wife, and children share a social, emotional and economic partnership. This viewpoint implies that to the degree to which all members of a particular family group share responsibility its living is successful or unsuccessful. All members of the family must, therefore, be included in any program of education designed to improve living as it takes place in families.

The concept embodied in homemaking education is thus seen to have evolved from the so-called practical arts of cooking, sewing, and housekeeping to the broad study of family life for all members of the family, emphasizing human relationships as well as homemaking skills.

RELATION OF HOME ECONOMICS TO THE EVOLVING OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

Seven Cardinal Principles. In 1918 the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Edu-

* Bess Goodykoontz and Beulah I. Coon, and others, *Family Living and Our Schools*, Joint Yearbook of the Department of Home Economics of the National Education Association and the Society for Curriculum Study (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941), p. 52.

† *Education for Family Life*, Nineteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1941), p. 132.

cation Association made a report in which seven aims of education were stated. They were education for (1) use of fundamental processes, (2) citizenship, (3) use of leisure time, (4) ethical character, (5) health, (6) worthy home membership, and (7) vocational efficiency. These are called the Cardinal Principles of Education. Although there has been disagreement with the wording of these, with their identification as principles of education, and with the idea that it is the business of public education at the high-school level to prepare for earning a living, there has been rather general agreement among educators that education should lead to ability to use those elementary processes needed by people for communicating with each other and for the general business of buying and selling—namely, reading, writing, and arithmetic. It has also been agreed that education should aid people to live more satisfactorily with others in groups for the benefit of both the individual and the group; that it should bring about greater happiness and enjoyment from use of leisure; that sound character and mental and physical health are its goals. Furthermore, worthy home membership as a goal of education has been very widely accepted. *With this latter goal home-economics education is especially concerned*, though home economics also contributes to better health, citizenship, use of leisure time, the development of character, and earning one's living.

Social-economic goals. In 1934 a committee of the National Education Association on social-economic goals attempted to answer the question, "What are desirable social-economic goals for America?" Its report listed ten such goals: ¹⁰

1. Hereditary strength
2. Physical security
3. Participation in an evolving culture

¹⁰ "Social Economic Goals of America," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 23 (January, 1934).

- a. Skills, techniques, knowledge
- b. Values, standards, and outlooks
4. An active flexible personality
 - a. Personal initiative
 - b. Discriminating judgment and choice
 - c. Flexibility of thought and conduct
 - d. Individual difference
 - e. Co-operativeness
5. Suitable occupation
 - a. Guidance
 - b. Training
 - c. Placement and advancement
6. Economic security
7. Mental security
8. Equality of opportunity
9. Freedom
10. Fair play

It is self-evident that home-economics education contributes to a number of these goals: to hereditary strength, physical security, participation in an evolving culture, personality, occupation, economic security, and perhaps mental security. Yet there seems to be no one goal for which it is particularly responsible. As a matter of fact, about the time this report was formulated, considerable uneasiness existed in home-economics circles. Many schools dropped the work, and home-economics teachers were challenged to demonstrate its value. As a result, a broader and perhaps more vital interpretation of the function of home economics developed.

Educational Policies Commission. Another committee of the National Education Association appointed to formulate a statement of policies for education in the United States made its report in 1938 in the form of three published volumes, one of which is entitled *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. This commission first made it clear that objectives, aims, goals, or purposes must continually be revised to fit the situation existing at any particular time; that they can never be stated once for all in any but a static society; that statements of objectives must always

depend upon the judgment of some person or persons, and, therefore, are always relative to the values which that person or group believes are good. It then divided the purposes of education into four areas and four major objectives:

Area	Objectives
1. Personal development of the learner	Self-realization
2. Home, family, and community life	Human relationship
3. Economic demands	Economic efficiency
4. Civic and social duties	Civic responsibility

The objective of human relationships was further broken down into:

Respect for humanity	Appreciation of the home
Friendship	Conservation of the home
Co-operation	Homemaking
Courtesy	Democracy in the home

Homemaking education now came into its own when the home-economics teacher herself saw her field as education for living with others in the family, and saw the family as a basic element in democratic community life. Certainly home economics contributes to respect for people, to friendship, to working together, to courtesy and social customs; it certainly should develop appreciation for the home, its conservation, its maintenance and development. Home economics has a major contribution to make in this area.

Education for family living a need of youth. In 1947 the influential National Association of Secondary School Principals chose *The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary School Age* as the subject for study and publication. Ten general needs of youth were agreed upon, the fourth of which was,¹¹

¹¹ "The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary School Age," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 31 (March, 1947), p. 2.

"...to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life."

In this bulletin the following statements were made:

"While education for family life is a special obligation of the teachers of home economics, the philosophy of the school holds that this responsibility cannot be met in home economics classes alone..."¹²

Family living in its most wholesome and stable aspects should have attention, specifically and generally, throughout the pupil's entire secondary-school program... If the school program is to meet this imperative need, a large variety of experiences must be provided, opportunities must be present through which the pupil can secure a wide range of experiences.¹³

These quotations indicate that in the thinking of the group that prepared this bulletin the school has a responsibility for education for family life and that home economics has an important contribution to make to this program.

Life Adjustment Program. Further recognition of the contribution of homemaking education to the total education of youth is evident in a functioning philosophy of education which has received wide consideration and is becoming the focus of discussion and experimentation. That philosophy is embodied in the Life Adjustment Program. It had its initial impetus from Dr. Charles R. Prosser, when he presented what is called the Prosser Resolution at a conference of educators called by the Office of Education to study *Vocational Education in the Years Ahead*. The Prosser Resolution recognized "the need for a more realistic and practical program of education for those youth of secondary-school age for whom neither college preparatory offerings nor vocational training for the skilled occupations is important."¹⁴

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 56.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

¹⁴ "Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth" (Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1948), p. 15.

The original resolution read as follows: ¹⁵

It is the belief of this conference that, with the aid of this report in final form, the vocational school of a community will be able better to prepare 20 percent of the youth of secondary school age for entrance upon desirable skilled occupations; and that the high school will continue to prepare another 20 percent for entrance to college. We do not believe that the remaining 60 percent of our youth of secondary age will receive the life adjustment training they need and to which they are entitled as American citizens . . . unless and until the administrators of public education with the assistance of the vocational education leaders formulate a similar program for this group.

We therefore request the U.S. Commissioner of Education and the Assistant Commissioner of Vocational Education to call at some early date a conference or a series of regional conferences between an equal number of representatives of general and of vocational education to consider this problem and to take such initial steps as may be found advisable for its solution.

As Dr. Prosser pointed out, 60 per cent of young people were not being given adequate consideration. He proposed that a program of education adjusted to life as life is lived, which would be of great help to this 60 per cent, should be developed. Hence his resolution.

A Commission of Life Adjustment of Youth was selected to give further study to the resolution and its implications for public education. Under the leadership of the Office of Education in Washington, regional conferences of educators were called for further study, and to develop plans for action. The results of study by these groups were published in 1948.

These educators agreed that education should more nearly meet the needs of *all* pupils. Its purpose should be to prepare "all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society." ¹⁶ It was the consensus that "functional experiences in the areas of practical arts,

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 15.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

home and family life, health and physical fitness, and civic competence are basic to any program designed to meet the needs of youth today." ¹⁷ In another place the report says "Many, indeed, are the unmet needs of youth of high school age. . . . Among these unmet needs, none is more urgent than the need for sound, practical education for home and family living." ¹⁸

The Commission summarized its point of view concerning family life education in this definition: ¹⁹

Education for home and family living is that part of a total program for secondary education which provides opportunities for acquiring the understandings, the factual knowledge, the skills and abilities necessary for homemaking and for successful participation in family life.

In such a program all phases of family living should be studied. The focus or center should be the values of family life, family practices, family problems, and home customs and experiences of the students participating. All activities should be closely related to the family and community experiences of the pupils who are being taught.

According to another report of this Commission, made in 1951, the following principles have guided the development of effective programs: ²⁰

(1) The program is planned for boys as well as girls. . . .

(2) The needs, problems, and interests of pupils and their families are the basis for planning, developing, and evaluating programs of home and family living. . . .

(3) Students, parents, teachers, and administrators help plan the objectives, procedures, activities, methods of teaching, and evaluation. . . .

(4) Home and family life education is strengthened through the cooperative efforts of teachers from all subject-matter areas concerned with this phase of the school program. . . .

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 17.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 63.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 69.

²⁰ "Vitalizing Secondary Education," Report of the First Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, Bulletin No. 3 (Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, 1951), pp. 81-84.

- (5) The program in home and family living is considered an important phase of the total school program
- (6) Satisfying human relationships are given major emphasis in programs of home and family living
- (7) The ultimate goal for each individual is ability to function effectively as a member of the home and community

THE RELATION OF HOME ECONOMICS TO GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The development of a consistent philosophy of home economics in the public schools has been complicated by its administration under two different agencies in education. These are frequently called general education and vocational education. The presence in the same school system of some *home-economics classes known as vocational and others as non vocational or general* has been and still is confusing to both educators and laymen. If, in addition one finds what appears to be much the same activities going on in both vocational and non vocational classes, the difference in function becomes even more confusing. That the difference may be in name only and not in function is often evident, and that those concerned with the guidance of the two programs are not at all clear concerning the function of either is also all too often apparent.

It is claimed that general education has as its purpose the development of those capacities of individuals which will help them gradually to take their places in society as contributing members, or as the *Educational Policies Commission* stated it, *The general end of education in America at the present time is the fullest possible development of the individual within the framework of our present industrialized democratic society*.²²

²² Educational Policies Commission *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1938) p. 41.

General education, therefore, aims to develop those attitudes, appreciations, and abilities needed for future as well as for present living. Home living is included as one aspect of present living.

Of late years a functional philosophy has developed in general education. According to this philosophy, education should prepare for living through living; should look to the development of the individual as an individual; should aim at the development of all abilities, but emphasize personal development for living in a social group. In serving these purposes home economics has a definite place. One cannot think of educating a person to gain the best of the life he is living, without recognizing that he lives in a family group, that he first learns to live with people through life within the family, and that the family is the unit of the larger group—the community. A point of view has developed that calls for all boys and girls to study ways of living together in family and social groups, which of course utilizes the area of subject matter known as home economics.

On the other hand, vocational education has claimed as its purpose the development of the person as an able and skilled worker in some socially useful occupation at which he might earn a living, or as it is stated in the bulletin, "Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education," issued by the United States Office of Education:²²

To the extent that it is subsidized by the Federal Government under the Vocational Education Acts, vocational education has reference to training for useful employment. It may be given to boys and girls who, having selected a vocation, desire preparation for entering it as trained workers; to youths who, having already entered employment, seek greater efficiency in that employment; and to adult workers established in their trade or occupation, who wish to increase in their efficiency and wage-earning capacity to advance to positions of responsibility.

²² "Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education," Bulletin No. 1, rev. ed. (Washington, D.C., Office of Education, U.S. Department of the Interior, February, 1937), p. 6.

Thus the aim of vocational education is to cultivate those abilities and skills that are needed in a definite vocation. Homemaking requires many abilities and skills. Can we not consider homemaking as a vocation even though the earnings are in terms of satisfaction rather than money?

Home economics and general education. Home economics has much to contribute to the education of individuals for *satisfying personal living* as a part of general education. Those problems of *personal grooming, of selecting becoming clothes, of establishing satisfying family relations, of personal health, and of management of personal income* that high-school pupils encounter are some of the personal problems with which home economics teachers and home-economics materials can help. To the extent that boys and girls are aided in these personal problems by home economics, it is functioning in their general education.

Home economics is also rich in possibilities for contribution to the education of young people as citizens. Problems dealing with the responsibilities of boys and girls in *controlling contagious diseases, or with their relation to merchants in buying goods and services from them, or with helping to feed poor children in the community*, are a few of those which home economics might help to solve. To the extent that it contributes to their awareness of social problems and to their desire and ability to do what they can to solve them, home economics is again functioning as general education.

The fact that some of these problems are dealt with in homemaking courses with a vocational function, for the purpose of *personal development* and also for the purpose of *improving family life*, has caused confusion, but this only illustrates the dual function of home economics.

Home economics and vocational education. Home economics has two important contributions to make to the vocational education of individuals. One is its education for increasing responsibility in home living, which, for purposes

of clarification, we will hereafter call *homemaking* education. The other is its contribution to wage-earning.

Some educators have hesitated to accept homemaking education as bona-fide vocational education, which to them is training for a gainful occupation, is specific and concrete in its objectives, is given at the time that the individual feels a need for the training, and deals with abilities and not with appreciations. Homemaking deals not only with production but also with consumption and with relationships. Although many of the objectives of homemaking education are concrete, others that involve human relations are less well-defined. Homemaking must deal with intangible understandings and appreciations, as well as with abilities.

Dr. Charles R. Allen, one of the early leaders in the field of vocational education, has said that vocational education means to "equip an individual or aid an individual to equip himself to get a job, hold a job, or get a better job."¹¹

Restating this, we may say that homemaking education means equipping an individual or aiding an individual to equip herself: (1) to establish a home, a family, and the material surroundings for that family; (2) to maintain this home, for the comfort and satisfaction of each member of the group; and (3) to improve this home and its family life both in relationships and in material surroundings and activities. Applying Dr. Allen's definition in this way, it is seen that *education for homemaking is vocational education.*

It is the province of homemaking education to aid boys and girls to share effectively according to their ages and talents in the maintenance and improvement of their own family life. Such education is centered on family life and its problems. It must be concerned with individuals as members of families, and it must also be concerned with the effect of the family attitudes and living conditions on the society to which the families belong; however, its major concern will

¹¹ Dr. Charles R. Allen in a letter to the authors, quoted by permission.

be the problems of *family living*. From this point of view the test of its vocational allegiance would be the extent to which *family life is the center of all its activities and purposes*. Then the classes in school studying how to get along more understandingly with brothers or sisters, how to improve the housing of their own families, how to select clothing or furniture or other commodities within the limits of the family pocketbook, would be a legitimate part of a vocational program in homemaking. The girl who undertakes as her special home experience sharing in the care of a baby brother may be thought of as studying homemaking as a vocation.

That *homemaking education as vocational education shall go beyond talking about family problems and develop skill in meeting them* is also important. This will involve developing some ability actually to share the use of the radio, the family car, or the newest magazine, not just theorizing about how such sharing ought to go on.

Home economics may also contribute to the vocational education of girls in high school by helping them to develop abilities that may be used for wage earning. This may be done through classes that have as their specific and recognized purpose the preparation of girls for cafeteria or tearoom service, for household employment, for selling commodities used in homes, or for dressmaking or other occupations closely related to the home. It may also contribute indirectly by aiding girls in homemaking classes to see the possibilities for turning to account for wage-earning the abilities they may acquire there. For example, a girl may make her ability to work well with younger brothers and sisters an economic asset by selling her services in caring for children. Another girl may use her ability to prepare attractive family meals for earning money as a household helper in other homes.

Another type of contribution to employability may be made by helping girls with their personal life as wage-earners. The girl who is well groomed, courteous, and

gracious in manner, who understands people, and who can maintain her own health at a high level may be a better wage-earner than one without these abilities. Therefore it is evident that home economics may directly prepare for wage-earning or may contribute to the preparation for other types of wage-earning.

When homemaking classes are organized and administered under the Vocational Education Acts, they are usually called vocational. Other classes which do similar work, but are not subsidized or administered under the Federal Vocational Acts and are not referred to as vocational, but perhaps called general home-economics classes, are as truly vocational as those so-called, *if home and family-life education is their aim.*

Integration of general and vocational education. From the standpoint of function, vocational and general education may be going on in a class group at the same time. Even though your purposes as teacher are to aid in every way possible in developing the ability of the students within the same class to meet responsibilities in their families (vocational purposes), experiences may function as personal development (general education) rather than as occupational development (vocational education).

As long ago as 1938 the Advisory Committee on Education pointed out the tendency for various beliefs and philosophies to grow together in relation to content, curriculum, and objective:²⁴

In general the program for vocational education in home economics has constantly tended toward a broad conception of the curriculum. The instruction in homemaking has moved toward an integration of general and vocational education. Emphasizing the social rather than the individualistic approach, it has expanded the accepted content of the subject until it includes much rich material from the whole field of the social studies not provided elsewhere in the curriculum of the secondary school.

²⁴ John Dale Russell, and associates, *Vocational Education*, Staff Study No. 8, Report of the Advisory Committee on Education (Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1938), pp. 140, 208-209.

With the broadened content of homemaking education, there is perhaps some justification for considering it a part of general rather than of vocational education. Certainly it is general as far as the extent of the need for it is concerned. Furthermore, much of the newer content partakes of the nature of the social studies, always considered a part of general education, rather than the development of specific vocational information and skills. But whether homemaking is classified as general or vocational education is a matter of little consequence, as long as suitable opportunities are offered for young people to obtain this type of education.

It seems clear that if homemaking education is vocational, it differs from the other types very markedly in that it cannot be overproduced in terms of the number of individuals given such training. There is no danger of turning out too many people well equipped with all the information and skills necessary for success in homemaking activities.

In reality, groups that are functioning under so-called general education and those administered under vocational education have drawn very close together in their beliefs concerning the type of work to be offered in home economics in high school. The best thought in general education today looks upon home economics as *education for family life*. Likewise the best thinkers in the vocational field consider homemaking education as *education in family living*. Both groups are converging toward this goal.

THE HOMEMAKER'S JOB

If education for family life is to be the major objective in homemaking education, one needs to analyze this vocation of homemaking and then determine how the difference in standards in the various social and economic strata of society may affect such education. The latter will have to be done by each teacher for her own particular group.

The mother in a family of several children, with a low or moderate income, will (together with the father) carry the full responsibility for all of the work of the household, for the health of the family, for the training of children, for the

expenditure of the family funds, and for the relationships between the various members of the group. Another mother with the same number of children but with a high income will usually delegate the responsibility for much of the actual work of the household, retaining the managerial responsibility and the guidance of family life in its relationships and training. A fourteen-year-old daughter in the first family will probably assist in the home in many more ways than the daughter in the second. She may have more to do with household tasks and very probably with child care and development. The problems of production and of consumption in the two families will be vastly different; the problems of relationships will be different also. Problems of understanding children may not vary so much even though guidance given may be very different. Both women are homemakers, but the two would no doubt need and want different help, if they were to enter classes in homemaking education; for although some of their problems would be similar, many would be very different.

In each of these families there will be homemakers carrying full responsibility for management (usually father and mother) and homemakers with assistant responsibilities (sons and daughters). Therefore, teaching home economics to all members of the family, with the basic viewpoint of improving home and family life for that family, will be sound philosophy.

Meaning of homemaking. A home may be a "place to eat, sleep, and hang one's hat," as one student expressed it, in which case the job of the homemaker will be merely that of a housekeeper; or it may be a place in which each member develops according to his ability.

If we accept the larger and finer meaning, the homemaker has a much greater responsibility than that of housekeeper. Her job becomes that of worker, manager, teacher, coordinator, nurse, personnel manager, and purchasing agent,

with each part of her job shared to a greater or lesser extent with the father of the family and with the children. This job of the homemaker is shown by the following chart of her responsibilities.

ANALYSIS OF THE HOMEMAKER'S JOB

The homemaker is:

- I. A co-worker for the family in the
 - a. selection, preparation, and serving of food
 - b. selection, construction, and care of clothing
 - c. physical care of children
 - d. care of health
 - e. doing of laundry
 - f. care of the house and its furnishings
 - g. beautification of the house
 - h. keeping of the household accounts
 - i. care of poultry, milk, and home garden (if rural homemaker)
- II. A co-manager for the family of
 - a. food
 - b. clothing
 - c. uses of resources
 - d. family relationships
 - e. rest and recreation
 - f. house care and operation
 - g. care of furnishings and equipment
 - h. health and cleanliness
 - i. social life
 - j. formal and informal education of the family members
 - k. work of helpers
 - l. community contacts and relations
 - m. home beautification
 - n. home finances
- III. A co-buyer for the family of
 - a. food
 - b. clothing
 - c. household supplies
 - d. provision for housing
 - e. health aids
 - f. recreational and educational aids
 - g. investments
- IV. A co-teacher of children in developing
 - a. food, clothing, and health habits
 - b. personal habits

- c. attitudes and ideals
- d. manipulative, judgment, managerial, and creative skills
- V. A co-ordinator of relations between
 - a. members of the family
 - b. the family and its neighbors
 - c. the family and the community, including the school

From the above we see that homemaking consists of (1) the performance of household activities, (2) management, (3) controlling expenditure, (4) guiding the development of individuals in the family group, and (5) co-ordinating relations among the members of the family group and between the family and the community. Homemaking has always consisted of these things, but in the past the conscious emphasis for the woman has been placed largely upon the skills within the home, whereas the ownership of the home and the financial responsibility for the family were lodged in the father.

Trends in homemaking. The concept of the family as a group held together by affection, with each member carrying different degrees of responsibility, is becoming more and more predominant. We in a democratic society do not believe that the father owns his wife and children, but that the family is a partnership, a democratic organization.

We still have homes of the productive type where food preparation, clothing construction, making home furnishings, and other forms of household production are carried on. This is true of a vast number of rural homes where the women prepare most of the food used—including butter, cheese, preserves, and canned foods—make much of the clothing, make curtains and rugs, and do all of the house cleaning. Other homes are less productive, for much food preparation is done outside of the home; clothing is selected ready-made and commercially cared for; and furnishings are bought. In these there is not sufficient work to keep the women members of the family busy. We have both types of homes, but

we must recognize that the family is changing from a production unit to a consumption unit, especially in urban areas.

Formerly the knowledge and skill needed by a girl for future homemaking was taught her by her mother, as a form of apprentice training. With the changes which have occurred in home life, the knowledge and skills needed have also changed; less is needed in the manipulative field and more in the field of personal relations. For instance, in the modern city home in an apartment house, the mother rarely needs to know how to can fruit, but she does need the ability to guide her adolescent girls and boys, who, being unanchored by the responsibility for home work, are continually meeting new social problems.

Formerly marriage was the only career open to women; therefore every girl in her teens looked forward to marriage, and thus had a vocational interest in homemaking. Today girls look forward to a period of self-support before marriage, or perhaps to an early marriage with the coming of children postponed until economic independence is reached, possibly with the help of their own earning power. Hence most girls have two vocational interests, wage-earning and homemaking. At high-school age the former frequently has the stronger drawing power,

Attitudes toward marriage have changed. Economic independence of women means matrimonial independence also. This too means a lessening of the homemaking vocational interest of the former kind. For a woman today homemaking may be only one of two vocations and her interest in it may be less in its skills than in its personal relationships.

As the results of research are made known, the amount of information concerning home activities grows faster than it can be transmitted to the homemaker. It is recognized in the field of nutrition that our knowledge changes almost overnight. In the fields of child development and human relationships, the body of knowledge is also increasing rapidly. This

is likewise true in other phases of homemaking, and it means that the home can no longer carry the full responsibility for educating the prospective homemaker. The school recognizes its obligations and its opportunities and is working to meet them.

TRENDS IN HOMEMAKING EDUCATION

Today we consider that homemaking education is part of the work of the school as well as that of the mother, and there is an ever-growing recognition of a responsibility for educating boys and men also for their part in homemaking.

Education for family living must be co-education. It concerns one sex just as much as the other and must meet the needs of both sexes from the beginning of life until the end. Men and boys are home members and homemakers. The tasks they perform and the contributions they make are quite as important as the tasks performed and contributions made by women and girls. Men and boys, then, have at least an equal right to the kind of education which will help them to meet their problems as effectively as possible.¹¹

Formerly one found meal preparation, clothing construction, home care of the sick, home furnishings, and home management as the main content of all homemaking programs. Today family relationships, use of human resources, buying problems of the home, housing, and child development have assumed a prominent place in a large number of homemaking programs. This does not mean that the abilities included in the earlier courses have been omitted, but it does mean that less time and effort are devoted to them, and that the personal and social relations of family groups are emphasized.

It would appear that homemaking instruction today tends to be pointed toward intellectual understanding more than toward manipulative skill, and that this tendency is believed to be a desirable one. It also appears that the need for studying problems of personal living

¹¹ Goodykoontz and Coon, *op. cit.*, p. 55. Italics in original.

rather than future homemaking responsibilities is being stressed, and that this tendency is also desirable.²⁶

As long ago as 1939 a group of leaders in home-economics education, attempting to clarify the function of home economics in general education, made a somewhat similar statement which also indicated the change in emphasis which had been occurring.

*Home economics has always had the activities of the home and the life of the family as its focusing point. Those activities most frequently thought of when home economics is mentioned are the feeding, clothing, and housing of the individual and the family. A study of home economics offerings, however, over a period of years shows that other activities have long been included; the management and use of individual and family resources, the protection of health and care of the sick, the growth and development of the members of the family, the care of children, the everyday social relationships of people, the development of individual and group interests within the home. The increasing interrelatedness and interdependence of people have extended still further the interests of home economics in the social, political, and economic conditions affecting immediate personal living, home and family life.*²⁷

These various beliefs concerning the characteristics of an effective program of home-economics education have resulted in increased emphasis on education for family living in what is being called a *family-centered* program. "Family-centered" means that the focal point is the entire family, in all of its stages of development from the newly wed, through the young couple with little children and the family in which the children are adolescent and preparing to leave home, to the elderly couple whose children have made homes of their own. It means that the entire family is to be included in education for family living. It means a study of family living with due consideration for variations in cultural background and traditions. It means a study of family living in relation to

²⁶ Report of the Advisory Committee on Education, *op. cit.*, p. 146.

²⁷ Ivol Spafford and others, *Home Economics in General Education at the Secondary Level* (Minneapolis, Burgess Publishing Co., 1939), p. 4.

individual satisfaction, to personality development, to human relations, to physical needs. It involves intangible as well as tangible elements of family living.

All these divergent but converging viewpoints are no doubt confusing to you, a prospective teacher. That is to be expected. Thoughtful, experienced educators are not themselves entirely clear or in complete agreement concerning the function of home economics in a scheme of education which has as its purpose preparation of young people for living in a democracy such as ours, with its many different elements and its many conflicting customs and beliefs. An honest disagreement has been and is wholesome. A challenge to belief has been a stimulus to clear thinking, out of which have come more effective programs for home living.

A STATEMENT OF PHILOSOPHY

Perhaps it will help to give some concise statements of beliefs. We believe that:

1. Democratic family life contributes to our democratic form of national life.

2. Families have different beliefs about social and economic values and concerning what makes a desirable family life.

3. Democratic family life is co-operative family life.

4. Satisfying home and family life is essential if an individual is to develop to his maximum.

5. Every member of a family contributes to that family life.

6. Relations between family members are important.

7. Each person in the home should work co-operatively for a satisfying family life.

8. Families can make the best of what they have.

9. Effective use of home facilities affects family life.

If the above statements are true,

1. The aim of homemaking education should be to improve family living.
2. Helping families achieve their *own* goals should be a goal of homemaking education.
3. All members of the family, boys and girls, men and women, should be included in a program of homemaking education.
4. Homemaking education should go beyond *talking about* democratic family living, and *develop abilities* needed for such living.
5. Homemaking education should contribute to satisfying personal life and to adjustment to social and economic environment.
6. Homemaking education should help in the development of fine communities in a democratic nation.
7. Homemaking education should not be confined to school education only.
8. Homemaking education should *help people live better in the homes they have with what they have.*

PROBLEMS

1. Write a statement of your beliefs about homemaking education *which you might use in talking to either a superintendent of schools or a group of mothers.*
2. Consult several homemakers concerning what they think homemaking education should accomplish. Compare their statements. To what extent do they agree? To what extent do these beliefs conform to the philosophy that the major aims of home economics should be education for home living?
3. Write a clear explanation of your understanding of what is meant by a family-centered program of homemaking education.
4. Think back to your own home economics in high school and decide what purpose was back of it.
5. A woman once asked a teacher of an adult class in home management, "After all, does not a woman who is not well educated make the best homemaker?" *How would you answer this question?*
6. Plan a panel discussion for your methods class on the question, "What can a homemaking teacher contribute to a life adjustment program in a high school?"

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~ CHAPTER III ~

Homemaking Education Under the National Vocational Education Acts

It seems advisable here to explain rather briefly the requirements for homemaking education in schools that are subsidized under the National Vocational Education Acts—the so-called vocational schools. Various publications listed at the end of this chapter will give a more complete description of the vocational program and its requirements.

THE ACTS AND THEIR STIPULATIONS

The National Vocational Education Acts are commonly known as the Smith-Hughes and the George-Barden Acts. The former was passed by Congress in 1917. The latter was passed in 1946 as an amendment to an act of 1936, called the George-Deen Act. Other acts were passed between 1917 and 1936, namely the George-Reed and the George-Ellzey Acts, but since they were in effect for a limited period, it is unnecessary to discuss them here.¹

The purpose of these acts providing for Federal aid to

¹ For copies of these acts see—"Administration of Vocational Education," Vocational Education Bulletin No. 1, General Series No. 1, revised 1948. (Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1948). Appendix B.

states is to promote and develop education for useful employment. As stated in the policy bulletin of 1948: ²

The purpose of vocational education is to provide training, to develop skills, abilities, understandings, attitudes, working habits, and appreciations, and to impart knowledge and information needed by workers to enter and make progress in employment on a useful and productive basis. Vocational education is an integral part of the total education program. It makes a contribution toward the development of good citizens, including their health, social, civic, cultural and economic interests.

The acts are intended to promote education which will help people who are preparing for employment, or those who are already employed. These people include pupils in secondary schools, young people who have left school, and adults, both employed and unemployed. However, all of these people must be non-college students, fourteen years old or older and mentally and otherwise able to profit from the training received.

The Smith-Hughes Act appropriated funds on a continuing basis for the promotion and development of vocational education. This law is still in effect. The George-Deen Act and its successor, the George-Barden Act, authorized the appropriation of funds but left it to each Congress to decide the amounts to be appropriated. The first act (Smith-Hughes) specified agricultural, trade and industry, and home-economics education as the types of vocational education to be promoted under its provisions. Home economics was to be closely related to trade and industrial education since 20 per cent of the funds for trade and industrial education might be used for home economics. The George-Barden Act broadened the scope of vocational education which would be promoted through Federal funds by including education for distributive occupations and vocational guidance in its provisions. It also gave home economics

² *Ibid.*, p. 1.

recognition as an area of vocational education which should stand on its own merits. Both acts provided funds to promote teacher training in these fields.

Any school or class for which funds from these acts are used must be under public supervision and control; that is, they must be under the direction of a state or local board responsible for the use of public funds, and that board must have full charge of selecting and paying teachers and selecting and organizing the courses to be taught.

For the high school. Specific requirements for home-economics, trade and industrial, and agricultural education in high school were written into the Smith-Hughes Act. Those for home-economics and trade and industrial education include the regulation that one-half of the school day of each high-school pupil enrolled in classes in those areas, must be devoted to that area. That is, one-half of the school day must be devoted to home economics or home economics and related work such as science and art. The George-Barden Act permitted more flexible policies to be established, under which the minimum time required for each class in home economics can be the same as that required by the local school for a full unit credit in other school subjects. Each school must, however, offer a minimum of two years of homemaking instruction when these funds are used. Furthermore, time for individual work with pupils (a conference period) is required in the daily schedule of the teacher, though the amount of such time is not specified.

For out-of-school youth. In the first Vocational Education Act it was recognized that there are pupils who leave school early to go into employment or who simply drop out of the regular day school, for whom further vocational education should be provided. It therefore provided that workers sixteen years old or older may be brought back to school, either during the day or evening, for further education preparing them for useful employment. For girls, it was assumed

that this employment was either homemaking or wage-earning occupations. To receive aid from Smith-Hughes funds, such classes are required to meet for 144 hours of classroom instruction during the year. This time requirement was eliminated in the George-Barden Act. Under this act the states were also given increased opportunity to formulate their own programs for out-of-school youth.

For adult education. Opportunity for adults to continue their education was also made available under the National Vocational Education Acts. Funds were provided which might be used for the reimbursement of a portion of the salary of the teacher of adult groups, provided that the classes were under public-school supervision and that the people who enrolled for them were sixteen years old or older. "The instruction offered must be below college level and be designed to supplement homemaking experience." It therefore has been possible to develop a variety of types of programs to meet the needs in the different states and local communities. A brief description of the most prevalent types of programs is given in Chapter XVII.

For teacher education. When providing for the promotion and maintenance of programs of vocational education the formulators of the Smith-Hughes Act recognized that there would be a need for better-trained teachers. Funds were therefore provided to be given as aid to states for the preparation of teachers. In most states these funds were allocated to colleges which would agree to provide the needed preparation. One or more such colleges have been selected in each state to be approved for the preparation of vocational teachers. Each state in its plan sets its own requirements for the kind of preparation teachers must have.

Administration and supervision. In the operation of both the Smith-Hughes Act and the George-Barden Act, each state, upon accepting (by legislative action) the aid provided by the Federal Government, created a State Board for

the control of vocational education. This board appoints directors and supervisors and delegates to them the promotion and guidance of vocational education in the state. As a result, most states have a State Director of Vocational Education. All states have state supervisors of agricultural education, home-economics education, and trade and industrial education. Many states have supervisors of distributive or business education and of occupational or vocational guidance. Thus an organization has been developed for promoting and guiding the development of vocational education.

Each state, after developing the organization described above, must prepare a plan which describes what the state expects to do in vocational education. This is called the State Plan for Vocational Education. When it has been approved by the Federal authorities in the Office of Education in Washington it becomes a contract between the Federal and state Government for the organization, promotion, and administration of vocational education. These plans are revised periodically and may be amended at any time when conditions in a state make it desirable to do so. Although state plans must be approved by the Office of Education, this office specifically declares: ¹

In the promotion, development, and operation of programs of Vocational Education the States have the primary responsibility. The Office of Education, as the Federal agency in the co-operative arrangement for the national program, does not organize or operate vocational schools or classes.

States may plan to provide any kind of vocational education that seems needed and provide it in any way that seems to fit needs. However, they can receive Federal funds only for the kinds of vocational education provided for in the National Vocational Education Acts and use this money only according to the provision of the acts.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

APPLICATION TO HOMEMAKING EDUCATION

Now what does all this mean for homemaking education? First the term *useful employment* needs to be interpreted for home economics. This was done as follows in the 1948 revision of Policy Bulletin No. 1: *

The controlling purpose of vocational education is to fit for useful employment hence it follows that the controlling purpose of vocational education in home economics, as provided by the vocational acts, is to prepare for the responsibilities and activities involved in home-making and in achieving family well-being. The general objective of vocational education in home economics is to provide instruction which will enable families to improve the quality of their family life through the more efficient development and utilization of human and material resources.

The term *vocational education in home economics* should also be explained. All legal terms relating to homemaking education as it is related to Federally aided vocational education, are stated as vocational education in *home economics* because the term *home economics* was used originally in the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917, and continued to be so used throughout later acts including the George-Barden Act. For other than legal use, however, the term *homemaking education* is generally used.

Purpose of vocational education in home economics. The purpose of vocational education in home economics is the betterment of family living. Vocational programs should, therefore, provide opportunities for study in:

1. Selection and purchase of goods and services for the home.
2. Maintenance of satisfactory personal and family relationships.
3. Selection, preparation, serving, conservation, and storage of

8. Maintenance of health and home safety.
9. Home care of the sick, and first aid.
10. Consumer responsibility and relationships.
11. Selection and provision of educational, recreational, and occupational experiences for family members.
12. The interrelation of the family and the community.⁵

Requirements to be met. Under the Smith-Hughes Act one-half of the school day of each pupil must be devoted to home economics or to home economics and related work, such as science or art. Another requirement is that *only girls* enrolled in homemaking may be enrolled in classes in the related subjects. These rigid requirements were so difficult for schools to meet that since funds are available under the George-Barden Act, few if any schools maintain a high-school program to meet the requirements in the Smith-Hughes Act.

Policies developed under the George-Barden Act liberalized the provisions for homemaking education. In the secondary schools, the minimum time to be devoted to homemaking may now be the same as that required for credit in other school subjects; however, a two-year program of homemaking instruction must be offered. Time is allowed in the teacher's daily schedule for individual conferences and for guiding home and community experiences. Classes for boys and girls together or for boys alone may be part of the program. Related science or art may or may not be offered.

Essentials of a vocational program in homemaking. The broad outlines for vocational homemaking may well be seen from this quotation from the bulletin, *Administration of Vocational Education*:⁶

1. The curriculum is concerned with fundamental values and problems in the several aspects of home living and homemaking, and deals with these in such a way as to develop needed skills, understandings, attitudes, and appreciations.

2. Problems studied are derived from the needs and concerns of

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 51.

individuals and families served, taking into consideration their maturity and experience.

3. The individuals reached through the program are sufficiently mature to develop a realization of the importance of homemaking and increasingly assume managerial responsibilities in the home.

4. The total program is sufficiently intensive and extensive to enable the individual served in developing abilities necessary for effective participation in homemaking and in community activities affecting the home.

5. The program includes a sufficient variety of experiences to give students actual learning experiences in all of the major phases of homemaking.

6. Over a period of years the program in any one center meets the homemaking needs of the in-school and out-of-school youth and adults taking into account other educational opportunities which the home, the school, and the community provide.

7. There is good community understanding and increasing participation in the program.

8. Administrative relationships and arrangements, including provisions for space and equipment are of a kind that facilitate maximum development of the program.

9. Continuous evaluation of the program is carried on and is used as a basis for changes in the program.

Under the George-Barden Act the homemaking program has expanded to include educational opportunities in the high school, with classes principally for girls in the ninth and tenth grades and more advanced and specialized classes for both boys and girls in the tenth and eleventh grades. The girls' organizations, Future Homemakers of America and New Homemakers of America, have become an integral part of this high-school program. Other classes give opportunities for the study of family living to young people who have left school, and to adults. All of these are now included in the term *total program of homemaking education* in a community.

In high schools a program for homemaking in vocational education should be broad, well-balanced, and flexible, and should place its emphasis on education for family life. Its special goal is education for "homemaking and home living."

Its major objective is to "help the individual to live a more useful and satisfying personal, family, and community life." Specifically it aims to help individuals to become better citizens, make more efficient use of available resources, guide children wisely, acquire skills in managing a home and in housekeeping, establish wholesome attitudes toward others, adjust to change, improve their health, appreciate and enhance beauty in the home environment, enjoy social activities, and achieve satisfaction from home and family life. It provides for experience in carrying responsibilities in the home. It applies the instruction to immediate problems.

Such a homemaking program is based upon home needs which are determined through home contacts and home surveys. It uses home visitation and home experience and Future Homemakers of America as aids to realistic and functional classroom instruction. It attempts to secure good teaching by means of a high standard for teachers. And the program is continually improved through supervision.

Summer employment of homemaking teachers. Under the influence of funds available from the Federal Government, many schools have employed home-economics teachers for an extended term beyond the regular school year, sometimes ten, sometimes eleven or twelve months. Beginning with a few experimental centers the movement has developed steadily, and extended employment has become a common practice in many states.

Summer employment has placed new responsibilities upon teachers, but has also made it possible for them to become well acquainted with homes and the community. During the period of summer employment teachers visit homes, supervise home experiences, guide girls' home-economics clubs, conduct classes for parents or out-of-school youths, and help with community projects. Sometimes they work with girls on an individual basis, and at other times girls go into the school at regular intervals for group meetings. In some places the

teacher visits each girl who will enter high school in the fall and helps her plan for school. These added months form an *excellent opportunity for organizing groups of out-of-school girls into classes and clubs*. When a teacher is employed for eleven or twelve months it is also possible to promote joint *summer projects in which brothers and sisters undertake together some home improvement activity, such as improving the yard or developing an adequate home garden*. In *one state, each teacher employed for summer work is expected to supervise home projects; conduct one adult class; organize and supervise one community project, one school improvement project, and a recreational program for girls*.

Such summer employment of homemaking teachers has demonstrated that it provides opportunities for the teacher *to understand the community better than she is able to do during the busy school year*. She is able to enter into community activities and so grows to feel herself a part of the *community, and is accepted as such*. The understanding of home conditions gained through the summer activities increases the effectiveness of the work in the regular school term. The teacher can take part in the social life of the community and visit girls and their mothers in a normal way, thus making it easy to explain the objectives of the *homemaking programs and secure wholehearted parent cooperation in home-project promotion*. Along with this comes an increased understanding of the school by parents.

Supervision of homemaking education. The National Vocational Education Acts, by making funds available to the states, have encouraged and promoted supervision of homemaking education at state, county, and city levels. In every state, and in Hawaii and Puerto Rico, at least one state supervisor of home economics or homemaking (*the terminology varies*) is employed on a full-time basis. Many states have several supervisors at the state level. In some states one supervisor devotes all or most of her time to the Future

Homemakers of America organization. Some large states are divided into districts or areas with a supervisor to each district. In others county supervisors are employed in heavily-populated areas. Supervisors are also employed in most large cities.

These supervisors promote the continual development of homemaking education through school visitation, state and district conferences, publications, development of curriculums, promotion of experimental projects, and improvement of teaching. They furnish leadership for co-operative projects to be carried on in the state.

INFLUENCE OF VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS ON HOME ECONOMICS

During the years since 1917, when the Smith-Hughes Act was passed, many changes have taken place in home economics. Some of those which may be in part due to the influence of the vocational program seem worth recording here.

1. Broad programs in education for home and family life have become rather general, whereas courses in foods, clothing and home management comprised the majority of home-economics offerings prior to 1917.

2. Emphasis upon meeting the life problems of boys and girls, men and women, has come to be recognized as important, whereas "book knowledge" and "essential information" formerly were stressed.

3. There is recognition of the importance of knowing homes and communities and of adjusting teaching to the needs in the situation, whereas previously following a subject outline for a city or a state was accepted as good practice.

4. Science has become more nearly life science, either concurrent with or partially because of the emphasis in re-

lated science courses in the vocational program upon learning the scientific principles underlying home practices.

5. Impetus has been given to adult education in homemaking as something more than education either for skill or for the child-study phases of parent education; education in all aspects of family living is emerging as the desirable program in adult education.

6. Home-economics rooms and equipment are quite generally more colorful, more attractive, and more homelike than formerly and include social centers, reading centers, and provisions for a wide variety of home activities, whereas cooking and sewing equipment were once thought to be sufficient.

7. Teacher preparation has come quite generally to include experience with preschool children, with adolescents, and with adults; to include realistic experience in the home management house and in supervised teaching centers as nearly like the schools in which teachers will later teach as possible; to include broad subject-matter preparation and encouragement in securing adequate social and civic experience as well. Recognition of preparation needed by teachers in the broad vocational homemaking program has had its impress upon the preparation of all home-economics teachers.

8. The number of individuals reached in homemaking education has increased. While the increase in enrollment may be partially attributed to increased enrollments in high school, much of the increase can probably be credited to the philosophy and promotion of vocational education.

It may be argued that these changes have been concurrent with rather than a consequence of the vocational program; nevertheless, they seem worth calling attention to as important changes which are in agreement with the best in vocational homemaking.

PROBLEMS

1. To what extent does the organization of home economics, as it is offered in the high school in your home town, conform to the organization in the high schools of your state as a whole?

2. Other agencies than the public high schools are offering home-making training. Roughly, what percentage of the girls and women in your community are being reached by such agencies?

3. How far does the work offered in home economics in your state, as administered under the National Vocational Education Acts, accept all of the opportunities offered by these Acts?

4. If the home economics in the school in which you are teaching or doing supervised teaching is not on a vocational basis, work out a plan for organizing it on such a basis, and outline the steps which you as a teacher would need to take to get it so organized and approved for reimbursement.

5. If the home-economics department in your school is not on a vocational basis, to what extent does its work truly function as home-making education?

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~ CHAPTER IV ~

Building the Curriculum in Homemaking Education

The word *curriculum* needs defining because sometimes it is used with one meaning and sometimes with another. It has been and still is used by many persons as though it were synonymous with *course of study*. In college you have probably chosen to follow the home-economics-education curriculum while some of your friends have chosen dietetics, or arts and sciences. In college or university catalogues the word refers to the combination of courses that are provided for a general education or as preparation for a certain vocation. In this sense it is used to mean a series of prescribed courses. The term *course of study* is also used at times in this same way. In colleges and high schools one finds club work, dramatics, sports, and various school social affairs spoken of as extra-curricular activities. These have in the past been considered as outside the realm of the curriculum, hence the term *extra-curricular*, whereas the curricular activities were those taking place in a formal class organization.

The meaning of the term *curriculum* has undergone change paralleling the evolving philosophy of education that places experience as fundamental in learning; and we find it applied today to that entire body of experiences of pupils that is organized and guided by the school. Several definitions that have been used are given here for your consideration.

Briggs by implication defined the curriculum as the group of studies offered by the school as shown in the paragraph which follows:¹

It is quite possible that ideal theory would abolish subjects entirely and justify a curriculum of problems that draw freely at need on all fields of knowledge; but practically such a program is not likely to be adopted in this generation. It is quite probable that some new subjects should enter the curriculum, that there should be a change in requirements for graduation, that there should be a reordering of the sequences and a reassignment of the number for periods for the several subjects. . . . But the immediate challenge and the most inviting possibility is the improvement of the courses themselves.

Morrison used the term in a similar manner:²

The basal framework of instruction is the curriculum. Without a curriculum, the school is in precisely the same situation as is a builder who bids on a project without plans and specifications and proceeds to erect with no better guidance. Evidently, if instruction is to be systematically effective, the bedrock, the frame of reference, the plans and specifications of the instruction provided are in the curriculum.

Others have given the term a different meaning as is shown in the quotations below.

The curriculum consists in a series of purposeful life experiences growing out of the interests of pupils and directed, under teacher-guidance, toward increasingly intelligent behavior in regard to the surrounding culture.³

In its broader sense the curriculum is the sum total of all of the stimuli to which the pupils respond while in school; in its narrower sense it includes only that part of those stimuli which the school consciously selects, arranges, and directs.⁴

¹ T. H. Briggs, *Secondary Education* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1933), p. 367.

² Henry C. Morrison, *The Curriculum of the Common School* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940), p. 4.

³ L. Thomas Hopkins, and others, *Integration, Its Meaning and Application* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1937), p. 201.

⁴ Jessie B. Sears, "Technique and Procedure for Surveying the Curriculum," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (January, 1935), p. 124.

The curriculum is the planned experiences which the child has under the guidance of the school.⁵

The activities that are provided for students by the school constitute its curriculum. It is by means of these activities that the school hopes to bring about changes in the behavior of students.⁶

Using the term according to these last four definitions there would cease to be any extra-curricular activities, for all activities, whether carried on in or out of class time, would be accepted as educational and therefore as belonging to the curriculum. Conforming to the latter point of view, the word *curriculum* will be used hereafter in this book to mean *the total experiences of the child for which the school accepts responsibility and provides guidance*. Then the *homemaking curriculum* will refer to those experiences in personal and home living for which the school accepts responsibility and provides guidance.

The school, of course, should not assume responsibility for all of the life experiences of its pupils, but it can give thoughtful and purposeful guidance to all those activities for which it does assume responsibility. The need for guidance grows out of the fact that not all experience educates in the most desirable direction. As Dewey said, some experiences are "mis-educative":⁷

The belief that all genuine education comes about through experience does not mean that all experiences are genuinely or equally educative. Experience and education cannot be directly equated to each other. For some experiences are mis-educative. Any experience is mis-educative that has the effect of arresting or distorting the growth of further experience.

⁵ "Curriculum Development in Education for Home and Family Living—Purposes and Procedures," Miscellany 2087 (Washington, D.C., Office of Education, U.S. Department of the Interior, Vocational Division, June, 1938), p. 116.

⁶ Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1947), p. 95. By permission of The Macmillan Company.

⁷ John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1938), p. 13.

It is the purpose of the remainder of this chapter to help prospective teachers to understand some of the ways in which teachers have built and do build homemaking curriculums for specific situations, and the responsibility of the teacher in such planning. It is also the purpose of this chapter to help the beginning teacher to make her plans thoughtfully and creatively.

The teacher's place in curriculum-building. As a person in the school to whom the education of pupils in home living is delegated, you carry the major responsibility for selecting, out of the total possible experiences available to your pupils, those to which they and you shall give attention. Your superintendent or principal may advise you and help you recognize important factors to consider in the guidance of your class members. Your head of department in some large schools, your city supervisor in large school systems, your state supervisor, may offer advice or even prescribe experiences they believe your students should have. Yet no matter how closely you are supervised or how much you are left to work with your group on your own initiative, it is your *moment-by-moment and hour-by-hour choice* of what you do with your pupils that really determines the experiences included in the homemaking curriculum as it is defined in this book.

If your pupils are to learn the democratic way of life through experiencing democratic living, they must share with you in selecting and planning for experiences they are to undergo. Together you should set the goals for their accomplishment and together you should plan experiences, activities, and areas which they need to explore to achieve those goals. *This is democratic teacher-pupil planning.* Yet in the final analysis, you are the one whose obligation it is to see that they do plan, that they are thinking straight, that they recognize their limitations and capacities. It is your place to guide them to select those experiences which are worth while for the ends in view, by raising questions, bring-

ing in new points to think about, or by allowing them to follow their own thinking and plans without questioning. These are your responsibilities in pupil-teacher planning of the curriculum.

THE BASES FOR BUILDING THE HOMEMAKING CURRICULUM

To show you how the choice of experiences for a curriculum is related to beliefs about the purpose of education, a brief resume of the evolution of curriculum-building since home economics came into the school will be given.

Traditional knowledge. Formerly courses were set up by analyzing subject matter and selecting that to be taught to any particular group which was believed to be "the truth" and to be within the scope of their comprehension. This procedure was believed adequate by those who thought that the purpose of education was to transmit the best of the heritage of the race to the next generation. Only a little attention was given to the interest of the students or the use they were to make of what they learned. Most emphasis was placed upon covering the subject matter. For home economics this chosen subject matter consisted in a body of skills and knowledge in sewing, cooking, housekeeping, and later in home nursing and caring for children.

Future activities. There came to be, however, in the whole field of education, some questioning of the adequacy of this purpose, and greater concern about education as preparation *for living*. With preparation for living as the true purpose of education, the purpose of home economics was thought to be to prepare for home living. Then the way to build the curriculum was to analyze the duties of homemakers and prepare girls for assuming them by taking the simpler duties first and gradually adding the more difficult responsibilities as the pupils became older and more capable. This procedure

had some merit. An analysis of homemakers' responsibilities helped curriculum-builders to realize that home living embodies much more than the utilization of skills; that many of the important responsibilities in home living are those which pertain to human relationships. As a result courses were broadened to include home management and family relationships.

An educational program built on probable future activities was based on the assumption that the future responsibilities of homemakers would remain about the same, that one could predict with reasonable accuracy the kind of responsibilities the girl would meet when she became an adult homemaker, that the majority of girls looked forward to homemaking as their major interest. However, when social and economic conditions change rapidly and home-living responsibilities change with equal rapidity, it becomes increasingly difficult to foresee the activities pupils will be called upon to perform. It becomes impractical to prepare pupils specifically to meet certain definite experiences when those experiences may not happen to them as adults. The folly of spending one's present life in preparing for some unknown future when there is so much to be done to help students to live satisfying everyday lives today became apparent to many educators.

Present activities. Curriculum-makers met this difficulty by saying that the real purpose of education in a rapidly changing world is to educate in living, not for living; that we prepare best for living by helping pupils to live richly, fully, effectively, every day. If this is the purpose of education, the purpose of that portion of the field known as homemaking education should be to help pupils live effectively and happily in homes each day. Then the curriculum of homemaking should be built upon the activities in which pupils engage. It should help them to do better those things they do anyway. With this philosophy for a stimulus, studies

of the activities of pupils at different ages and places were made and the curriculum was based on them. It was found that the activities of these young folk were largely self-centered; that they helped with housekeeping activities but usually carried relatively little responsibility. Units in personal grooming, in social customs, and in boy-and-girl relationships were introduced or given greater emphasis, and concern for the development of the pupil as an individual who lives in a home now and meets certain responsibilities now, became the basis for curriculum-building.

Personal-social needs. Observation of the results of such a program again led to a questioning of the purposes to be achieved. Educators questioned the adequacy of a program built upon the present activities and personal interests of pupils without recognition of the obligations and responsibilities of these pupils to society both now and in the future. The bases for curriculum-building were again rethought in order to meet more effectively our needs in a democratic society which itself is undergoing change. One need in a democratic scheme of living is for individuals to be able and willing to carry responsibility independently, and at the same time to be able and willing to work with others. Since individuals learn what they experience, it is therefore the purpose of education to help young people experience living *in such a way* that they grow in ability and desire to solve problems independently, and to share with others in meeting the responsibilities of daily living. In other words, it is the purpose of education to *prepare for democratic living as adults through experience in democratic living as youth*.

For homemaking education, this means that personal and family problems of everyday living of young people are an important part of the content of a curriculum for them. It means that these problems are to be recognized and solved in such a way that not only are they intelligently solved for

the moment, but also that through their solutions pupils acquire increased ability to solve other problems. Furthermore, pupils should develop an increased desire to solve new problems by their own efforts and also develop in group experiences an increased ability to work with others. Experience in living in a group and sharing in work toward ends of benefit to the group begins at home and continues in school. Even so small a thing as sharing in the daily routine housekeeping in the homemaking rooms may be an effective experience in learning to work and live with others.

Developmental needs of adolescents. Research during recent years has shown that all people go through similar stages of development. These stages form a general pattern, though individuals vary in their rate of following that pattern. At each period children and adults have certain needs which are particularly pertinent to that period. Adolescence is one of these stages. It is a critical time during which young people need special help. Our students in high school are adolescents or pre-adolescents, and educators point out that the home, the school, and the community should all stand by to help these young people with their special needs during this developmental age.

Havighurst gives seven such needs with which homemaking educators can help, namely: *

- 1) Accepting one's physique and accepting one's masculine or feminine role in life.
- 2) Learning new and more mature relations with age mates of both sexes.
- 3) Acquiring emotional independence of parents and other adults.
- 4) Selecting and preparing for an occupation.
- 5) Acquiring the intellectual skills and concepts necessary to become a good citizen.
- 6) Preparing for marriage and family life.
- 7) Developing a scale of values or philosophy of life.

* Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1945).

It is evident that homemaking education can ably assist in the development suggested in the above statements. Therefore, developmental needs of youth become another basis upon which to select learning experiences to include in the curriculum. This basis is not unrelated to that of personal and social needs. Rather it is a focusing of thought upon and a more explicit statement of the personal needs of young people who are growing up in the families of today.

Several bases necessary. To build a curriculum that provides some possibility of accomplishing the purposes just set forth, the teacher must recognize both the needs of the child as a maturing individual who is living in a social world and the needs of a society undergoing a change. A curriculum built according to this philosophy will be based upon:

1. A study by the teacher and administrators of the needs of a society striving to preserve and improve the democratic way of living.

2. A study by the teacher and administrators of home life as it is lived today, and as it is evolving.

3. A study by the teacher of the home life of the specific community for which the curriculum is being planned, with its unique customs and traditions.

4. A recognition by teacher and administrators of the characteristic interests and basic needs of young people of various ages as disclosed by research.

5. A study by the teacher of the interests and developmental needs of individual pupils in the particular group for which plans are being made.

6. The pupils' statements of their own needs as they see them.

7. Parents' judgments of the needs of their children. Pupils, teachers, parents, and administrators all have a share in planning the curriculum. Of these the teacher and pupil working together are primarily the builders of the home-making curriculum.

BUILDING THE HOMEMAKING CURRICULUM FOR A GROUP

As a teacher who is about to start for the first time the adventure of guiding several groups of students through an entire school year, you will sometimes feel rather lost and not a little disturbed about how to begin. There is a variety of procedures you may follow, depending on what you hold important as educational values. If you believe that pupils should *share* in determining their own education, you will have them plan for themselves under your guidance. If you believe the teacher has all the ideas and authority, you will do all the planning and tell them what and when to study and what to do. If you believe that young folks should be helped to solve their everyday problems themselves, you will help them to recognize their problems and plan experiences and activities to aid in the solution of those problems. If you believe that people learn through experience and that experience is continuous, you will attempt to discover the level of experience of your students so you can help them to proceed from there in building the curriculum. Steps in curriculum-building that are consistent with the philosophy implied in the bases for curriculum-building listed in the previous section of this chapter will be given here. You will probably have studied the needs of society, home life, and young people in general as part of your college preparation for teaching. You certainly should have done so before you enter a particular community as a teacher, so your steps in building the curriculum with the students under your supervision will begin with finding the needs of the young people in the community.

Studying needs in the local community. First, if possible at all, go to your new position before school opens and begin a study of the community life, of the home life, and of the present responsibilities and concerns of the girls or boys

who are to be in your classes. (Various suggestions for making such studies are offered in Chapter V.) If for some reason this is impossible, you will have to start setting up tentative objectives—with whatever understanding and experience of young people and similar towns you may have—until you and your pupils begin to plan together upon your first contacts with them. At that time you may have them list the occasional and regular home duties they perform and may discuss with them the values they see in home life, to get an expression of their attitudes. You may have them list some of the problems they have which they would like to study. Together through pupil-teacher exploration you may learn some of their problems and difficulties.

Setting up tentative objectives. Think through for yourself in the light of your beliefs about social problems, home living, and the way young people learn, the objectives you believe may be suitable for each of the groups you are to teach. These should be thought of as only *tentative*, to be modified because of the further information you may glean from the study of your group. Thinking them out and stating them will give you a background for guiding the students in setting the objectives they wish to work toward during the year. One cannot expect to guide students well unless one's mind is well stocked with possibilities and unless one has some basis for judging the wisdom of their suggestions.

Even though tentative, your objectives should be clear and definite enough to serve as real guides to your ultimate selection of what to do, yet they must not be so limited in scope that they tend to encourage piecemeal learning. As a teacher your major goal is pupil development, therefore your objectives should be stated in terms of pupil development. It may help you to formulate the statements of your tentative objectives if you will think of them in terms of interests, attitudes, appreciations, understandings, and abilities which the pupils are to develop as you and they work together.

A few statements of objectives from a unit on "Child Growth and Development" in second-year Homemaking and from a unit in the same area in third-year Homemaking may illustrate how you might set up tentative objectives for two classes in this way.

Homemaking II (selected objectives)

Interest in babies and a recognition of some of their needs.

Understanding of the preparation necessary to meet the physical needs of a new baby.

*Recognition of necessary adjustments which parents and other family members need to make when a baby comes into the home.**

Homemaking III

Interest in children and a recognition of some of their needs.

Understanding of the need for observing and working with children in order to learn about them.

Recognition of the importance of an adequate diet.

Ability to plan, prepare and serve family meals keeping in mind the needs of young children in the family.¹⁰

You will note that in the above information is not set up as an objective. Since knowledge is a tool necessary for solving problems, it is not an end to be attained for its own sake. The mere acquisition of facts is not education, for education occurs only when a person is changed in some way—when his attitudes, his habits of action, or his abilities are changed. Of course, information is essential to these changes and will be acquired in the process of developing attitudes, understandings, and abilities, but it *should be a means to an end rather than an end to be achieved*. Information is necessary to understanding, but mere knowledge of certain facts does not insure understanding, since understanding depends on recognition of the full meaning of the facts and of their application to a variety of situations. Information is also essen-

* "Teacher's Guide in Planning Homemaking Education Programs for Secondary Schools of Alabama," 1949 Bulletin, No. 6, State Board of Education, Division of Vocational Education (Montgomery, Alabama), pp. 195-196.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 209, 215-216.

tial to the development of ability, but it must be put to use if ability is to be acquired. Abilities may be of several kinds. They may be essentially manipulative, or they may be judgment or reasoning abilities, or they may be creative when creativeness involves planning, management, and inspiration. Some facts are needed to increase ability, no matter what its type, *but facts alone serve no useful end*. Setting up objectives in terms of information to be acquired leads to neglect of the major aim—pupil development.

Pupil-teacher selection of objectives. With these tentative objectives in mind you are ready for the next step in curriculum building. If you believe in the value of pupil-participation in planning for their own learning, this step will mean obtaining the co-operation of the pupils in determining the particular objectives that will be their goals. The approach may be made in a variety of ways. The pupils may list things they would like to learn in home economics or ways in which they would like to improve themselves during the year. These lists may be pooled and discussed, and selections made. Or you may enlist the interest of the group in starting with some project, such as fixing up the home-economics rooms or entertaining the mothers. Then, as suggestions are made by the girls for things they would like to do later, you may record them to save for use at an appropriate time as the basis for co-operative planning of goals for the rest of the year.

A third approach may be made by discussing a general problem, as did one teacher who had her ninth-grade class with no previous home-economics work discuss the meaning of *home* and the responsibilities of children in homes. Each girl was then asked to list things she thought she could be responsible for in her own home, to check those responsibilities she felt capable of carrying at the time, and those she would like to learn to carry. After some general discus-

clothes during the rest of the year to acquire the ability she desires in caring for her own clothes. In addition, she may decide that she needs to study herself, think carefully about why her parents demand certain things of her, and make a real effort to cultivate a relationship pleasanter than the one that exists between her parents and herself. The teacher may agree with her choices and may co-operate in making the experience be of special worth to her.

Evaluating pupil development. The last step in building the curriculum in homemaking is the evaluation of experiences in terms of the growth of pupils toward the objectives set up. Other needs may then be recognized. Although this step is given last, it is one that is repeated continually while the curriculum is built day by day. It does not mean that one waits until the end of a certain period of time to make such an evaluation. You must, in fact, judge each experience as it is undergone, and you should determine each step forward in the light of some evaluation of the pupil development resulting from what is just past or now at hand. Evaluation of progress toward goals is essential to a teacher and to her pupils and *should be carried on as a co-operative process*. Since evaluation is a process with which teachers need special help, a later chapter will be devoted to this subject.

ORGANIZATION OF COURSES IN HOMEMAKING

Each teacher faces the problem of selecting some scheme of organization that will bring order and coherence to the courses she teaches as part of the total homemaking curriculum. These courses may be established as semester or year courses and may be expected to deal with certain phases of home economics separately, such as foods, clothing, home management, or child development, or they may be expected to provide experiences in the many aspects of homemaking. Moreover, within each course the teacher may be expected

or may choose to follow some unit plan of organization. She may have a plan, such as a city or state course of study to aid her in curriculum-building, which she may follow more or less closely, or she may have the freedom of planning with each of her groups as their needs require.

Unit organization. Some form of unit organization of materials and experiences has become rather general practice, not only in homemaking courses but in other subject areas as well. Each unit is composed of a group of closely related activities and experiences dealing with some special problems and projects, selected to accomplish certain specific objectives. The completion of the unit may require two or three days or several weeks.

Unit organization has distinct advantages, chief of which is that it promotes clarity of thinking and definiteness of objectives for both teacher and pupils. It not only allows careful planning for definite ends within the comprehension of the class, but it stimulates planning on the part of both teacher and pupil, since a complete unit of rather short duration may readily be visualized. Furthermore, coming to one finishing point and starting afresh toward a new goal may stimulate interest, provide for a sense of progress, and act as a spur to renewed effort. There is also a logical opportunity for teacher and pupils together to appraise progress and make improved plans for the future.

An illustration of a series of small units within a large unit is the preparation of several breakfasts as small units within a larger unit on breakfasts. The first one may have as its goal ability to prepare a very simple breakfast such as oranges, toast, and cocoa; the second, ability to prepare cooked fruit, cooked cereal, and coffee; the third, ability to prepare cooked fruit, cooked cereal, muffins, coffee, and cocoa, and to serve them nicely in family style; and so on. Each breakfast accomplishes a definite small objective; each contributes toward the big objective of the large unit, that is, developing ability

Problems are stated as high-school girls have worded them. From a study of these problems the pupils are to derive generalizations that will be needed if they are to understand child behavior. Starting with the pupils' problems in order to gain their maximum interest but being sure that they develop understanding of the general principles that permit transfer of learning is the basic idea in this type of organization.

You may attempt to organize a course around life problems by selecting them just as they arise. You may try to guide the pupils to go from one problem to another as they feel a need for help with each, or as you can help them to recognize a need for solving each problem. The problems may deal with a variety of situations, growing out of the experiences the pupils are having in school and out. Thus, the choice of the right kind of outfit to wear to the freshman party might be a problem raised by the class. Following this might come: What do you do when a boy comes to take you to the party? Do you introduce him to your folks? Should you ask him in when you get home? Should you let him kiss you goodnight? Such a series of closely related problems dealing with boy-girl relationship, with whatever exploration, study of reference materials, or discussion of situations you believe will help the students to solve them in socially desirable ways, will become a part of the curriculum you and the pupils are building.

Using *life problems recognized by the pupils, as they arise*, has the advantage of using intensity of interest and of being realistic and functional, but it also has serious disadvantages. It is probable that these problems will skip from here to there over the whole range of everyday living. In this very fact lies a real danger that the pupils will learn only in a fragmentary way, without understanding relationships, and will lose a sense of achievement that results from a more unified organization of experience and activities.

Dewey said of such disconnected experience: ¹²

Each experience may be lively, vivid, and "interesting" and yet their disconnectedness may artificially generate dispersive, disintegrated, centrifugal habits. The consequence of formation of such habits is inability to control future experiences. . . . Under such circumstances, it is idle to talk of self-control.

There is another disadvantage that arises from the tendency to spend too much time and attention upon experiences of transitory interest at the expense of those of more lasting value. You and your pupils will have to keep a very careful hold upon important long-time goals if you succeed in building a coherent and integrated body of experience from a series of everyday questions attacked as they arise.

Organization around projects. You may guide the pupils to select large organized purposeful experiences, sometimes called projects, and build the curriculum around a series of class, group, and individual projects. Each project will involve the solution of many problems and, if pupil-chosen and definitely purposeful, will supply its own motivation. Typical class projects may be making the home-economics room or rooms a homelike place in which to work, entertaining mothers in the "new home," feeding a noon and mid-morning lunch to the undernourished children in the first grade, serving the football banquet, making costumes for the high-school operetta, taking charge of the nursery for children of parents who come to night school, and many others. Each of these projects may have a definite goal; each involves the solving of many problems, the carrying-out of many activities; each provides opportunity for many experiences. Each may be a unit within itself.

Building the curriculum from such large learning experiences has the advantage of providing very purposeful activity and much opportunity for independent thinking.

¹² John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1933), p. 14.

planning, and doing, but it too has disadvantages. Since the learning takes place in very specific situations there is danger that the *pupils will not become aware of principles or generalizations involved* and will not be able to apply them to different situations. Careful attention to clarifying generalizations and principles will obviate this difficulty. There is also danger that both the teacher and pupil may emphasize the thing to be accomplished rather than learning or pupil development. Exploitation of pupil time and energy to secure productive results may occur. Careful evaluation at intervals in terms of pupil growth as well as in terms of accomplishment may help avoid this pitfall.

CONTRIBUTION OF HOME ECONOMICS TO THE CORE CURRICULUM

In a number of schools the entire curriculum of the school has been reorganized in the hope that the resulting education may function more directly in the lives of the pupils. Some schools aim to achieve this by retaining the usual courses but attempting to *make each course internally more suited to the life needs of students*. Still other schools have chosen to use a core-curriculum plan. As its name implies the core is composed of those learnings and experiences thought to be needed by all students at a particular educational level, either elementary, junior high, or senior high school.

Some core curriculums at the senior-high level have been little more than composites of several previous courses, such as English, social studies, and mathematics, taught all together. Other core curriculums use life problems of the pupils concerned, discarding all subject matter lines, and use the guidance of several teachers from various subject fields to help the pupils in selecting problems to be attacked, in providing experiences to be entered into, and in determining

progress. The immediate needs and interests of the pupils as they are related to the needs of the community and society at large have been the point of departure in such core courses.

Home-economics teachers, whose major concern should be to aid pupils in meeting effectively the personal and home problems of everyday life, can make a real contribution to such curriculums. Certainly there are needs of adolescents which have to do with caring for their health, with dressing appropriately, with buying commodities for themselves or their families, with developing and maintaining pleasant personal relationships in the home and among their age mates, with developing poise and assurance in social relations. Home-economics teachers should be able to point out such needs and to provide guidance in experiences designed to meet them. Whether the theme of the core be living successfully in homes or living better in our town, or some other equally vital real-life problem, the home-economics teacher should be ready to make a valuable contribution. Her place is here as well as in the special-interest courses that may be elected in addition to the core course in such schools.

When the school undertakes to help young people find better solutions and better techniques for attempting to solve their everyday problems, it is inevitable that there will be a need for guidance by a home-economics teacher. Everyday problems of young people will include problems related to their families, problems related to their friends and relations with people, problems related to their own development, and problems concerning their relations to the opposite sex. Home economics has much to offer to all young people in each of these problem areas. Social customs, suitable and becoming clothes, daily meals, are all areas of study in home economics which can help young people with their social and personal problems. These areas can be and usually are included in the content of a core curriculum.

TEACHERS' GUIDES AS AIDS IN CURRICULUM-BUILDING

State and city courses of study are thought of as professional aids to teachers for curriculum-building. Some are much more helpful than others in assisting teachers to discover pupil needs and to provide worth-while experiences for pupil development. In the past they have often been prepared by a supervisor, a teacher trainer, or a committee of so-called experts.

Teacher participation in curriculum revision. In recent years the practice of teacher participation in the preparation of curriculum materials has become prevalent. In the Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education for 1951, the statement is made that nearly every state reported a definite plan for improving courses of study. An endeavor to secure the active participation of as many persons as possible who were working in the homemaking program was one characteristic of these plans. In most cases the state reports showed the teachers were working in county, district, or regional groups on some problems of curriculum revision. Many states have a long-time plan for continuous revision. As new guides are developed by these committees, they are tried in the schools, evaluated by those who use them, and then further revised. In some states extensive surveys of home practices and economic conditions of families have been made from which problems of pupils could be inferred. Plans for making such surveys are to be found in the curriculum guides of several states.

Interest inventories or problem inventories were used extensively in other states to determine those pupil needs that should be met in homemaking courses. In one state many teachers co-operated in two studies made by students working toward the Master's degree, who identified the problems and found the grade level where the most interest in specific

problems relating to child development was commonly found. This information has been used as one basis for planning the problems to be included in the curriculum guide for pupils of different grade levels.

Another type of teacher participation in curriculum revision is to be found in communities in which the home-making teacher has elicited the co-operation of parents and sometimes alumni of the high school in reporting what they think pupils should study in high school. Alumnae are sometimes asked what they wish they had learned in high-school homemaking. Such opinions give clues for problems and activities that the teacher can incorporate in the curriculum along with the problems about which her pupils express concern.

In cities also, curriculum revision has been based upon studies made by teachers. For example, in one city a questionnaire was filled in by all girls in grades above the sixth. Much pertinent information was obtained concerning the socio-economic level of the families, earning activities of the girls, their ambitions and plans for the future, and what they wanted especially to learn. A careful study of this information by the home-economics teachers resulted in recommendations for the development of home-economics courses to meet economic and wage-earning needs more effectively.

State and city courses of study as resource materials. Although you will not blindly follow a state or city curriculum guide, it may be a resource for you from which you may obtain suggestions for problems that are common among young people of the same ages and the same social and economic background as your group. You may find suggestions for activities or methods of teaching. You may also receive excellent ideas from suggested reference materials, illustrative materials, or lists of available films and other visual aids. You may save much time and effort in selecting appropriate materials for your own or class use by consulting a

good teacher's guide to curriculum planning. However, you must select those which fit your community, and your pupils' immediate needs, interests, and capacities. The teacher's guide is a *point of departure* and a *source of suggestions* for the real curriculum-building which goes on day by day in each class.

PROBLEMS

1. Examine several recently published curriculum guides for teachers and decide what guiding principles were used by those who planned and prepared them. Be sure to examine both what may be stated as guiding principles or philosophy and what philosophy is evidenced by the form, content, and suggested procedures.

2. Discuss with several homemaking teachers the way they choose the experiences to provide and subject matter to be explored by each class group that they teach. Decide what bases they are using for curriculum-building.

3. Find to what extent these homemaking teachers are recognizing and including in their curriculum planning, the extra-class and home experiences of their students.

4. If possible, secure first-hand contact with a class in a high school in which there is provided a core curriculum which includes home economics. Find with what experiences the home-economics teacher assists. In your judgment what other activities or guidance would it be feasible for her to provide?

5. Take one suggested unit from a recent state or city curriculum guide. Plan the adaptations you think necessary for some group of students with whom you are familiar.

6. Using some lists of needs of adolescents which you believe to be sound, examine one homemaking teacher's guide to curriculum to see to what extent these needs have been recognized and provided for in either the explanatory material, objectives, suggested experiences, or statements of beliefs.

7. Study well one or two adolescents and see to what extent they seem to have needs of the same character as adolescents in general are thought to have. Are their needs for homemaking education the same? What does this mean for you as a homemaking teacher?

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~ CHAPTER V ~

Understanding Pupils, Homes and Families, and the Community

Education is a process of growth, of development from what one is to what one may become. Although growth comes from within, every experience in the home, school, and community affects that growth. Therefore, if you are to guide the development of the boys and girls in your classes, you need to know as much as you can about the forces that are influencing the development of each. You need to realize how far along the ladder of achievement each has come. You need to understand the effect upon his development of his relations with others in the family and community. You need to realize the influence upon his behavior of the church, the educational and recreational facilities, and the social class structure and customs that prevail in the community. The more of these things you understand the better able you will be to do your part in guiding and hastening the development of each pupil.

UNDERSTANDING BOYS AND GIRLS

Studying your pupils. You can gain a general understanding of the behavior of boys and girls to some extent by a study of adolescent psychology and sociology. Through the former you may understand growth patterns and drives;

through the latter the effect of family, friends, and community conditions upon the developing personality. But to really come to know young people you need to observe them in a variety of situations and work with them in their activities. You can acquire this necessary personal association by serving as a leader or advisor for some youth activities such as Sunday-school classes, camping groups, 4-H Clubs, Girl Scouts, and various other club groups. You can find rich return in increased understanding of young people from the time and energy spent in sponsoring a youth organization. If you take a small group of girls to the movies some afternoon, or on a picnic, hike, or camping trip, you will receive new insight into their needs and interests. If you work with junior-high-school boys and girls in your church youth group, you will see how they react when not under the restraint of home or school. Such experiences will deepen your understanding of them.

You might undertake a case study of a single high-school boy or girl. If you do, it will be well to have a systematic plan for observing and recording your reactions and insights. You may wish to collect such information as is suggested in the outline for the study of a girl given on page 95.

Read over the outline carefully and record all you know about the individual. Plan several opportunities to be with this young person and observe her carefully. Then answer any other questions you can, and again study the record. Continue this process as long as it rewards you with new understanding. The chief value of making a record of your observations is that it clarifies what you have observed. You will, of course, need to keep such analyses confidential and you will not want the girl or boy to know you are making a study of his behavior and factors affecting it. The outline given is suggestive of the kind of form you might prepare and use. It would obviously need adjustment if you are studying a boy.

OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY OF A HIGH-SCHOOL GIRL

Name:

Age:

I. Home and Family

1. Occupation of her father;
2. Occupation of her mother, if she is working;
3. Size and description of her family;
4. Type of home;
5. Home responsibilities;

II. Physical and Personal Appearance

1. Is she normal, under- or over-weight?
2. How does her physical development compare with normal development for her age?
3. What is her posture?
4. What is the condition of her skin?
5. Does she have any special health difficulties?
6. If so, what?
7. What is her nervous control?

III. Interests

1. Social

- a. What type of friends does she select? Is she interested in boys? Have dates?
- b. Does she have many or few friends?
- c. To what extent does she choose her own friends?
- d. What does she like to do the best, take the most pleasure in?
- e. Is she a leader or follower?
- f. Is she ambitious socially?
- g. Does she go to the movies? How often?
- h. Of what clubs is she a member?

2. Intellectual

- a. What are her chief interests at school?
- b. What books does she enjoy most?
- c. Is she eager to learn?
- d. What are her grades on the average?
- e. Is she in her normal grade at school?
- f. What are her intellectual activities?
- g. What does she talk about when with her friends?

3. Religious

- a. What church does she attend?
- b. What church do her parents attend?
- c. What is her attitude toward religious things?
- d. Does she attend young people's church organizations?
- e. Does she attend a Sunday-school class?

- f. Who is influencing her religious attitudes?
- g. Is she active in the Girl Reserves group (if there is one)?
- 4. Vocational
 - a. What does she expect to do when she finishes high school?
 - b. Is she planning to attend college? What kind?
 - c. What are her reasons for wanting to go to college?
 - d. Has she changed her ambitions in the last year?
 - e. Does she earn money outside of the home? How?
- 5. Homemaking
 - a. Does she do home work independently or under direction?
 - b. What type does she like to do?
 - c. Does she take care of children?
 - d. If she does, is it because she likes to or has to?
 - e. Has her mother ever given her responsibility for the home?
 - f. What does she do after school hours?
 - g. What does she do on Saturday?
 - h. Does she try to improve the appearance of her home?
 - i. Does she select her own clothes?
 - j. Does she care for her own clothes?
 - k. Does she care for her own room?
- IV. Relations to Parents
 - 1. Do her parents confide in her?
 - 2. Does she confide in her parents?
 - 3. Which parent's interests does she follow most?
 - 4. What is her general attitude toward her family?
- V. Personal Characteristics
 - 1. Positive
 - 2. Negative

Perhaps this seems like a long list of questions for each pupil in your class. It is, but answers to all these questions will not be available to you at once. You will learn them only over a period of time as you observe, talk, and work with pupils in class and in club and social activities, and as you talk with parents and visit their homes.

Other means of studying pupils. Some teachers, early in the year, ask their pupils to keep a time schedule or a diary telling what they do during a day. Such a schedule may be suggested as part of a class problem in a home-management

or social-relationships unit, or in some other unit in which it has a purpose for the class. But when so used, it will have two purposes for the teacher, chief of which will be better understanding of the pupils themselves. Such diaries tell the teacher how much time is given to home responsibilities, to recreation, to sleep, and to social activities, and how much is just "whiled away." They also tell her the kind of recreation and social activity enjoyed and the type of home responsibilities carried.

If you are new in the community or if the class is a new one, you may ask the pupils to write you a letter, explaining that these letters will help you to get acquainted more quickly. You may ask them to tell you where they live, how many brothers and sisters they have, what they like and dislike, what work they do at home, what they like to do when they just play, what they dream of doing some day—that information, in fact, which will help you to know them better.

A check-list of home activities has been used successfully by many teachers. A list like the one on page 98, if checked by each pupil, will tell the home duties or lack of responsibilities of each and will help you modify plans to fit better the needs of the class. The list shows which tasks are done frequently and which are enjoyed.

Offering a unit in social and family relationships early in the year affords another opportunity for studying your class. Many bits of information will be brought out that are otherwise difficult to obtain, especially those concerning attitudes and ideals. In such a unit, when class discussion turns to dating, to misunderstandings by members of their families, or to community situations, your pupils will sometimes voice opinions they do not freely express in other classes. These disclosures coupled with conferences with individual pupils will add to your understanding of their needs.

Talking with parents can be another means of learning

HOME ACTIVITY LIST

Name Date

1. Check in column 1 those things which you do *frequently*.2. Check in column 2 those things which you *like* to do.

Column

1 2

_____ Set table
 _____ Wash dishes
 _____ Buy groceries
 _____ Prepare breakfast
 _____ Help prepare breakfast
 _____ Prepare lunch
 _____ Help prepare lunch
 _____ Prepare dinner
 _____ Help prepare dinner
 _____ Prepare the main dish
 _____ Prepare the vegetables
 for cooking
 _____ Prepare the salads
 _____ Cook vegetables
 _____ Prepare desserts
 _____ Plan meals and prepare
 them
 _____ Care for left-overs
 _____ Pack school lunches for
 self
 _____ Can foods
 _____ Help with canning and
 preserving
 _____ Clean pantry and cup
 boards
 _____ Clean kitchen
 _____ Clean refrigerator
 _____ Clean bathroom
 _____ Clean living-room
 _____ Make beds
 _____ Clean windows
 _____ Care for garden
 _____ Care for pets
 _____ Care for lawn
 _____ Clean woodwork
 _____ Help with family washing
 _____ Do family washing

Column

1 2

_____ Wash own hose and
 underwear
 _____ Iron for self
 _____ Iron for family
 _____ Mend and care for own
 clothes
 _____ Clean shoes for others
 _____ Care for own room
 _____ Make undergarments or
 aprons
 _____ Make dresses for self
 _____ Make over clothes
 _____ Do embroidery
 _____ Buy own hose
 _____ Buy own undergarments
 _____ Buy own hats and shoes
 _____ Buy dresses for self
 _____ Buy clothes for others
 _____ Help dress and feed
 children
 _____ Make clothes for children
 _____ Take much care of
 children
 _____ Help make house linens
 _____ Help mother entertain
 guests
 _____ Entertain own guests
 _____ Plan and give party
 _____ Answer telephone and
 door
 _____ Help plan family budget
 _____ Have an allowance
 _____ Shampoo own hair
 _____ Care for own nails
 _____ Take music lessons
 _____ Do outside chores
 _____ Help in store
 _____ Do any work for money

about your pupils. Parents usually enjoy telling you about their children. They will often praise the special abilities and point out the things they believe their child should learn in your class. If you are able to see the whole family together in a fairly normal situation you can often sense the relationship that exists between parents and the girl or boy. You can also recognize the relationships among brothers and sisters or with grandparents who may be part of the household. If you are sensitive to the undercurrents and interpret with judgment what you observe, you will find visits to the homes a most fruitful means of learning to know your pupils. How to make home visits that are really helpful will be discussed later in this chapter.

Personnel records. If the information collected is kept in an organized form, it may become a personnel record of great value. A separate folder or envelope may be used to hold the activity check-list, the personal information record, notes on home visits, or any other material concerning each pupil. One teacher developed a fairly complete record by using a large envelope with the pupil's name, address, phone number, and the name of the father and mother on the outside. Sometimes directions for reaching the home were also added. In these envelopes were placed the health record card, a check sheet of home activities, a home-survey sheet, records of home visits, and a record of additional items of interest or value about the pupil or his home. Needless to say such records must be *entirely* confidential.

UNDERSTANDING HOMES AND FAMILIES

As the preceding section has suggested, knowledge of home conditions is essential to a thorough understanding of your pupils. This knowledge also makes it possible to adapt class work so that home needs may be more nearly met and home conditions more nearly approximated. As a prospec-

Talking with the pupils and listening to them talk will frequently give you much information. Those teachers who have the pupils write them letters (as suggested in a preceding section) learn a great deal in this way. Teachers who have used this device report that the letters are usually frank and give many interesting facts which permit a good insight into the home situation.

Other teachers ask each pupil to answer a simple questionnaire. Sometimes the questions ask about the home and its facilities, sometimes about the pupil and the family. An illustration of a questionnaire of the latter type is given here.

DATA SHEET FOR HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

Name _____ Date _____ Date of birth _____
 Address _____ Telephone number _____

I. Name of parents

Father _____ Living _____ Yes _____ No _____

Mother _____ Living _____ Yes _____ No _____

Father's occupation _____

Mother's occupation (if working outside the home) _____

II. If not living with parents listed above, fill in the blanks in this section:

Foster father or guardian _____ Occupation _____

Foster mother or guardian _____ Occupation _____

III. Name of sisters. Place an X before those living at home.

Name

Age If out of high school indicate present activity (college, job, etc.)

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

tive teacher, usually you cannot study the homes of the pupils you are to teach until you have begun living in their community. But you can have clearly thought out the methods you are going to use for such a study.

Learning about homes is more difficult than learning about community conditions because of the personal element which is involved. By walking through the streets you may observe the usual standards of house building and external care and the types of industrial plants; you may introduce yourself to tradespeople with propriety; but you cannot go about ringing door-bells and asking people to let you survey their domestic arrangements. Your methods, if you wish to succeed at all, must be tactful and indirect.

What to learn. You will want to know whether both the parents of each pupil are living, whether they are living together, and whether or not the mother is employed outside the home. What is the father's occupation? How large is the family? What standard of living is maintained? What foods are eaten regularly? *Does the family appear to be well nourished?* Is industry or indolence evident? Are the relations within the family comfortable or strained, co-operative or antagonistic? Does the boy or girl share in planning family activities, fun as well as work? Does he or she carry any definite home responsibility? How emotionally independent of parents has he become? Does the home provide a sense of security as well as physical safety and comfort?

You may be unable to learn all these things about every home, but these questions indicate the type of information you will be alert to obtain when you can. The fact that the home atmosphere is not harmonious may explain why, at times, a boy or girl is not co-operative at school, or the fact that the mother works outside the home may explain why one child knows more about home duties than another.

How to learn about homes and families. Teachers pick up the desired knowledge, bit by bit, through various devices.

Home visits. One of the most effective ways to learn about a home and the boy or girl within it is to pay that home a visit. In your professional capacity as a teacher you may call on the parents of your pupils without being governed by the social convention of waiting for the mother to call first or to give you a special invitation. If you are approachable yourself, you will usually find the parents not only courteous but perhaps eager to become acquainted. In no phase of your teaching career will your social attributes be of greater value than in making such home contacts.

What teachers believe concerning home visits was well expressed by one teacher who said,¹

I find through home visitation: first, I can differentiate between a girl's interest and her real needs much better if I have visited her home and usually can guide her in the selection of a better problem. Second, I can find out how much cooperation I can depend on from the mother and if she hasn't been interested or informed I can usually secure her interest. Third, I can get an idea of her family environment—how much responsibility she assumes at home and whether there are small children in the family—which enables me to better understand her needs. Fourth, I can adapt my class plans to cover some of the needs I have discovered. Lastly, sometimes I can accidentally discover a good problem that might have been missed. For example, the girl who was trying to earn money last summer selling. She needed help to succeed and I happened to call at the opportune moment.

Now as I think back over the days when I first began to make home visits I remember how much of an ordeal it seemed to me then, and I am most grateful for the encouragement I met in every home. I was welcomed with warmth and friendliness, and it was that welcome that gave me the courage to continue until I was able to overcome my fear enough to realize the value of these visits.

Today my chief regret is that I cannot get around to all the homes early in the year, which I think is a great handicap. A large enrollment makes that impossible. I do know that I can give much better help to the girls I have visited because of seeing possibilities such as I have illustrated above and that these girls seem to get farther in the long run and have more interest and enthusiasm than those I have been unable to contact.

¹ Millie Lerdall, "Planning for Home Visits," *Vocational Homemaking Newsletter* (Des Moines, Iowa, October, 1933).

IV. Name of brothers. Place an X before those living at home.

Name	Age	If out of high school indicate present activity (college, job, etc.)
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

V. Are there other relatives living in your home?

Yes ____ No ____ If so, what ones?

VI. Are there people other than relatives living in your home? ____

If so, how many? ____ Are they children? ____ Are they grownups? ____

VII. Name the organizations to which you belong. After each one state the part you have taken (member, committee member, officer, etc.)

In which of these organizations are you most interested? Why?

VIII. What are your favorite leisure time activities? List a few of them.

IX. What magazines and books do you most enjoy reading?

X. Do you receive money by: (may check more than one statement) A regular allowance _____ Earning it _____

If so, how?

If so, about how much per month? _____

Asking for it whenever you want it? _____

XI. How do you use the money you receive?

XII. What do you do to help at home?

This gives an organized record and makes more nearly sure that the desired information will be secured uniformly. However, a questionnaire is somewhat formal and answers may therefore lack those flashes of human interest which may come from a letter.

To keep a record of the information they obtained from home visits 41 per cent used a blank which they filled in for each student; others used card files, notebooks, individual folders in which they placed notes they "jotted down" during the visits, or anecdotal records written afterwards.

The idea of making home visits seems to trouble many prospective teachers who ask when they should go, how long they should stay, what they should do while there, and whether they should let the mother know when to expect a visit.

When should you go? Just as soon after the school season opens as is possible and convenient. In many states homemaking teachers are engaged for a month longer than the school year, especially in some of the schools which are being subsidized under the National Vocational Educational Acts. When homemaking teachers are employed for ten or eleven months, they have time to visit girls at home before school opens and have an excellent opportunity to study home and community conditions. During the school year it may be difficult for you to find time to visit homes, as calls must usually be made after school hours. Certainly you will not wish to make your visit at an inconvenient time. A rural home in the late afternoon is often a very busy place, since outside chores have to be done. Meal time or shortly before is also inconvenient for most mothers who do their own work. Just after school may be the best time, but individual community conditions will determine this.

Transportation presents a real problem in making home visits, especially if pupils live many miles from the school and you have no car. Frequently the school board will allow car mileage. Sometimes the teacher of vocational agriculture will take you around, or sometimes the superintendent will loan his car or better still take you himself. Occasionally you can go home with a rural pupil after school, if you know that the parents will be willing and find it convenient to

A study of the teachers' use of home visits in one state disclosed that they made home visits for these purposes:

----- to learn more about the student, her family, and home conditions; to develop more friendly relations; to get cooperation from parents both with the teacher of homemaking and with the school; to get a sound basis for guidance in home projects and to work more closely with the mother in evaluating these projects; to gain knowledge of community life; and to interest women in adult classes.³

Another purpose often cited by teachers is to find the interests and problems of the homemaker herself as a basis for planning the homemaking program for adults. In other words, teachers have found they can use the information they discover during home visits for better planning of both their high school and their adult programs.

The results of home visiting reported by teachers in the study previously cited were that many made changes in the furnishings and equipment of the department, in the illustrative materials they used in teaching, and in the subject matter they included in the food unit. Many said they used the information about girls and their homes to guide them in the choice, planning, and execution of home projects.

The information the teachers in this study said they obtained from home visits related to—

1. The health, food, dress and grooming, and personalities of pupils and their families
2. The home responsibilities and special interests of pupils
3. The education of family members
4. Size, condition, and sanitary facilities of the house
5. Type of equipment and furnishing used
6. Housekeeping practices
7. Church affiliation and its relation to dress and recreation
8. The family economic status and the girl's economic responsibility
9. Family attitudes and customs
10. Degree of family participation in community affairs, including co-operation with the school

³ Mary Love Martin, "Home Visits," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 35 (November, 1943), p. 575.

were conversing like old friends. Before the teacher left, they went into the kitchen where the mother had been trying unsuccessfully to make working conditions easier in a room twenty feet square with a sink at one end and the pantry at the other. Together they worked out a plan for condensing working areas and improving conditions. The teacher had made the meeting easy by having ready a favorable comment on something about the home. The pretty blossom of the geranium in the window, the little chickens in the yard, or the bright eyes of the baby will often serve the purpose. Such comment can be sincere, if one looks for the good things.

In addition to having in mind some way to "break the ice" when you meet the parents, you will need to have clearly in mind the purposes of your visit. A few questions about family relationships that you may want to seek answers for but not ask the family directly are these: What share do the children have in the family life? Do they share in decision-making as well as in responsibility for tasks or chores? Do they feel they "belong" and are secure? How dependent are they upon their parents, intellectually and emotionally? What is the spirit among the family members? Do respect for each one by the others and deep-seated affection appear evident or is the relationship one of indifference or possibly fear, dislike, mistrust? What is the pattern of authority in the family?

Sometimes it may be better to let the mother know when you are planning to visit her; at others it may be wise to go unannounced. There can be no generalization concerning this. Perhaps the personality of the teacher helps to determine which is better. A spontaneous, friendly teacher may prefer to go unannounced, being sure of herself in any situation. Of course, she runs the risk of finding the parents absent. Another teacher may wish to let the mother know that she is coming, feeling that the mother would rather

take you back to town. You may need to use some ingenuity in order to reach all homes.

Your attitude as a visiting teacher is most important. If you appear to be a kind of inspector, you will not inspire confidence as did a teacher who visited one home in mid-afternoon and found that the mother had not yet had time to wash the dinner dishes. She relieved the mother's embarrassment by going back into the kitchen with her to help finish the dishes, and in so doing she won her way into that mother's confidence and friendship. Such a teacher is understanding, sympathetic, friendly, and approachable and is not supercilious or snobbish. A teacher who acts friendly, wears what is considered conventional dress in the community, and tries to be congenial is usually respected by a girl and her parents.

When going to a home, it is wise to have in mind something to talk about in case there should be a need to "break the ice" at first. Most mothers will be at ease, but in some homes there may be embarrassment on the part of a mother who has not had many social experiences. A story of a teacher in the South will show how she put a mother at ease. She had in her class a very quiet girl, who was a good pupil, but did not seem to have many friends. She was always clean and attractively, though very simply, dressed. When the teacher visited her home, she found that it was a sparsely populated part of town, set in a yard with an unpainted picket fence. The house itself was weather-beaten; no curtains were at the windows; and the whole place showed the evidence of poverty—dignified, but nevertheless poverty. As the teacher walked up the long flight of steps which led to the veranda she wondered to herself, "What can I talk about?" Then she noted, at the end of the veranda, a very large live-oak tree which gave beautiful shade. The mother was very glad to see her but not quite at ease until the teacher began to talk about that tree. In a few moments they

will all be new and strange to you. How are you to gain the information you desire about the community?

The teacher's attitude. Of first importance is your attitude toward people and toward the community situation in general. A teacher, as a rule, is genuinely interested in people, not idly curious about them and their doings, but really interested. You, as a home-economics teacher, will be especially interested in families and their activities. You will therefore pay close attention to the names of people you meet and show your sincere interest in their activities and attitudes. If you give your full attention to each new person, show your interest and are a good listener you will collect much information that will be helpful. If you ask questions or make statements showing a favorable attitude toward the community, you will elicit much more information than if you ask negative questions. For example, "You have an interesting library here, I understand. I suppose it is well patronized," may bring much more information than the question, "You don't have a very extensive library for a town of this size. Do people read much?" If people find you like them and their town you will soon be taken into their confidence.

Exploring the community. Suppose, then, that you start on a journey of exploration, perhaps with a friendly guide, perhaps by yourself. There is always a thrill in the joy of a new discovery, and this town will be to you an unknown and unexplored country.

Your course will carry you down Main Street, into the different stores—general dry-goods, grocery, furniture, hardware, specialty shops—whatever stores there are. It will carry you around the residential section, through the better part of town with its fine homes, through the part where homes are modest, and then perhaps "across the tracks" or "beyond the water tower," if there is such a section, and there usually is. It will carry you through the business areas other than

have it so. In such a case she may find the family all dressed up and waiting for her and thus have no opportunity to observe the normal home situation. The course of action must be determined partly by inclination, partly by good judgment, partly, perhaps, by experiment. Usually the more informal the acquaintance, the better the results.

Other ways of reaching parents. You may become acquainted with the parents of your pupils in other ways, too. You may invite them to school for exhibits, special class meetings, club meetings, or other occasions such as a tea or dinner for mothers, or a fathers' banquet. At these times, the work of the department may be explained and the meetings may thus serve a dual purpose—the teacher meeting the parents and the parents becoming acquainted with the school. This method has been used by many teachers—all of whom report the same difficulty—namely, that many parents do not come to the school for these functions. You may meet some parents at ball games or other community affairs, at class plays or church suppers, when you will frequently need to take the initiative and go more than half way in meeting them. But a remark to a girl like, "Your mother is here, is she not? I should like very much to meet her. Won't you introduce me?" or to a father, "You are Jane's father, are you not? I am so glad to meet you," will generally secure the desired contact. Parents usually appreciate the interest shown by teachers in their boys and girls, and there need be no awkward moments conversationally as long as there is Jane, or Bob, or May to talk about.

KNOWING THE COMMUNITY

Think of yourself as a new teacher who is going into a community before school opens; the town, the school, the other teachers, and the townspeople, as well as the pupils,

group with similar values? Are they supporters of the school system, or are they antagonistic or indifferent to the school's policies? These will all be of interest and you will want to seek evidences of attitudes and values as you mingle and become acquainted with people.

Getting acquainted with people. You will want to become personally acquainted with members of the community, particularly community leaders, tradespeople, and women who are active in organizations. Such contacts will help greatly in advancing home-economics work by gaining the interest of many people and by providing avenues for publicity and promotional work. Here, perhaps, is where you as a young teacher, just out of college, may feel some hesitance. You cannot always ask to be introduced to certain people in town; you can, however, request introductions to the officers of such organizations as the Parent-Teacher Association; and you will make many acquaintances if you go to meetings and social affairs. Attendance at church, or at meetings of the Parent-Teacher Association, women's clubs, the American Association of University Women, and other organizations, will enable you to meet other women. It is true that many of these organizations meet during school hours, and it may be difficult for you to attend them. However, if the women's club meets at three o'clock and you are not out of school until three-thirty or four, you can accept an invitation to attend with the request that you be permitted to arrive a little late.

Many teachers wait for the people in the community to take the initiative in social relations, but it is really *your* professional responsibility, sometimes to take the initiative yourself, to study your surroundings, to seek information with the intent to use it wisely, and to make and accept opportunities to meet people rather than to trust to luck that the needed contacts will come of themselves.

the retail store area, into the wholesale and manufacturing sections, if there are any. When your journey of exploration is over, you will have a good idea of the geography of the town and its neighborhoods, of its general standards and types of commerce and business, whether it is agricultural, trade, industrial, or only residential; and you will have some conception of the type of tradespeople. Perhaps finding answers for the questions below will help you to know your community.

What are the predominating industries?

What wages do they pay?

If the community is agricultural, what are the main crops?

Has the business of the community been successful in the last few years?

What library facilities are available?

What newspapers and magazines are popular?

What churches are there in the community?

Are there any feuds, church or otherwise, which you must avoid?

What women's organizations are active?

Who are the leading women in these organizations?

What men's service clubs are in town? Who are their officers?

Who are the leaders of public opinion?

What nationalities are represented?

What types of merchandise are available?

To what local customs or traditions should you conform?

Is there a local newspaper? Is it widely read?

What young people's organizations are active?

What recreational facilities are available for young people?

What facilities are available for health protection?

Are there any local traditions which especially need to be preserved?

What will you want to learn about the people in this community? Certainly you will want to learn about the educational background of the people and what things they value in life. Their cultural background too will be of interest to you and the degree of their concern about democratic values and practices. What do they prize in family life? Are they aware of social class differences? Are they a homogeneous

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PROBLEMS

1. Study two girls whom you know, one in the early and the other in the later adolescent years. Watch them carefully for several weeks, taking opportunities to see them in a friendly way; then compare them in interests, dominant traits, emotional stability and control.

2. To what extent are the characteristics which you observe in these two girls general for all girls of adolescent age?

3. A student in a methods class once said rather emphatically, "I do not think it pays for a teacher to know too much about a girl and her home. She can teach better if she does not know some things." In what way would you agree or disagree with her statement?

4. A teacher in a city high school of 900 pupils has five home-economics classes a day, with an average enrollment of twenty-two girls in each class. She lives six blocks from the school on the bus line and must be at the building from eight-thirty to three-thirty each day. She is adviser for the Girls' Club, which meets once in two weeks. The principal is willing to co-operate in any plan she proposes to improve the work of her department. Suggest a plan by which she can learn as much as possible about her girls and make as many home contacts as seems feasible.

5. Using the suggestions given in this chapter, make a study of the community in which you live.

6. Decide for yourself the records which you, as a teacher in a small rural high school, think it would be advisable to keep for each girl in your class, and work up a sample set of forms for one girl. Have in mind some actual case.

7. Compare two homes of different social levels. How would you vary your teaching in order to meet these home conditions?

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~ CHAPTER VI ~

Guiding Pupil Development: Basic Principles

A philosophy of education which recognizes that learning takes place through experience calls upon the teacher to discover and use the experiences of her pupils that tend toward desirable development; to set the stage for experiences they may be encouraged to undergo to attain their own purposes; to guide them through those experiences which will promote desirable future experiences; and to evaluate their progress. Before discussing the various methods, procedures, and devices that may be used by the teacher to perform what she is called upon to do, it seems necessary to clarify the principles which we believe basic to learning.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

Our understanding of learning is of course based upon our understanding of people as individuals, or one may say upon the understanding of the principles of human behavior which a study of psychology and psychiatry gives us. Our understanding of the principles of human behavior is continually increasing; and as a result our understanding of learning grows, and our statements of the principles of learning change.

When the first edition of this book was written, teaching

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Learning as an entity. Studies of human behavior show that the individual reacts as a whole to the total situation; his parts never act in isolation. Nor does he act except in a situation.

We do not learn mentally at one time, physically at another, and emotionally at still another, but through the integration of all our reactions within a situation. As Ordway Tead has said,²

... it is always the whole person who is learning, and the process entails mental, muscular, and visceral alterations. There can be no learning without the learner's active participation, explicit creation, and tangible change of active response. After learning the person is different.

This view of learning makes it necessary to use learning situations as total experiences, not as elements to be separately learned and later put together.

Emotion and learning. Today it is believed that emotion plays a larger part in learning than we have thought in the past. Prescott showed that at least three levels of intensity of emotion should be recognized in teaching. Mild emotion is pleasurable and desirable in learning experience. Moderate emotional experiences can be safely enjoyed and have desirable educative results. Strong emotions, on the other hand, may be overstimulating or overdepressive, and may have mis-educative results.

Attitudes are influenced by emotions and are closely associated with purposeful action. Attitudes predispose one to learn or not to learn. They influence one's judgment of good and bad, as well as of people. They are at times a driving force in learning.

We believe that pupils learn best when they feel secure. Good teachers have discarded fear as an incentive to learning. Good teachers never ridicule a pupil or hold him up to

² Ordway Tead, *College Teaching and College Learning* (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1949), p. 23.

procedures were largely based upon the so-called laws of learning—or the law of readiness, the law of effect, and the law of exercise. According to the law of readiness, we learn what we are ready to learn. An interest, a purpose, a desire, a need or readiness for some specific learning must be felt before learning takes place. This partly accounts for the emphasis placed upon motivation or the development of interest in pupils. According to the law of effect, we tend to repeat that which gives us satisfaction and to avoid whatever annoys us. We can all give many illustrations of the working of this law within our own experience. "I will try anything once" implies that I will try it again if I like it, and not repeat it if I dislike it. The law of exercise states that learning becomes permanent only after repeated use. We forget most of what we do not use; we lose the skill which has been developed but which has not been used for a long time. We recognize this when we say, "I have not done that for so long that I have forgotten how." The principles of readiness, effect, and exercise have not been entirely discarded. As Prescott and his committee of co-workers said,¹

From ancient times, the awareness of satisfaction or of dissatisfaction, the feeling of desirableness or undesirableness for the individual of the conditions in which he finds himself has been thought to have a motivating and directing effect on behavior.

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Psychiatrists and clinicians give a more functional view of feelings than do more academic psychologists. They see feeling as more directly motivating and directing behavior. They find patients going to no end of trouble to avoid unpleasant feelings which they have experienced before . . . Perhaps we cannot describe accurately the role played by feelings in motivating and directing behavior, but we do know that they are close to the basic physiological processes which underlie all behavior. For this reason, they merit experimental study in connection with school situations.

¹ Daniel Alfred Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process* (Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1938), pp. 13, 16-17.

basic for learning is exceedingly important, for we seem to learn best when we are directing our efforts toward a goal or a purpose, and especially toward a goal that is of our own determination.

According to Dewey, a purpose is an end view, involving a look into the future and an understanding of consequence. It is not an impulse, or an emotional desire only, though impulses and emotional influences play their part in initiating and directing purposes. A purpose to be an effective purpose must be that of the pupil. How to lead pupils into determining their own goals, or purposes, is a problem of teaching techniques founded upon an understanding of psychology and of pupils. This implies that pupils need to develop discriminating judgment concerning the experiences which will be of greatest value to them. The starting point is a purposeful experience; the end is development of the pupil.

Developing interest. Interest is the key to success in all teaching. Young people as well as adults learn best when interested; indeed it is difficult to keep a girl or boy from doing something about which she or he is intensely concerned. So if you can get your class keenly aware of any problem, project, or class activity, your battle is half won.

According to the quaint philosophy of Andrews: *

Every now and then
Someone says, "You can lead
A horse to water, but you can't
Make him drink"--but I believe
They're wrong, dead wrong.
You can always make him
Drink, if you will just
Salt him well first.

The whole philosophy of
Better Teaching is
Wrapped up in that one sentence
The salt of Interest will make him drink.

* S. M. Andrews, "So This is Education," *Colorado School Journal*, (December, 1931).

shame. A good teacher never "bawls out" a pupil. She develops relations between herself and her pupils and between the pupils in the class which will give a feeling of security to each and all; which will permit each to feel free to express himself, to help in group work, to co-operate with others, and to learn effectively.

The skillful teacher recognizes emotional states of people and tries to develop attitudes that seem at this time to be the best for effective and satisfying life in our democracy. She recognizes that information alone is not sufficient, for she knows that "to group facts intellectually by no means automatically assures emotional acceptance of the information nor adjustment in terms of it."³

Learning through experience. Learning comes through experience. Everything we experience has its resulting influence upon us. In other words, we change and develop (or learn) from hour to hour, from minute to minute, as the situation in which we find ourselves varies. As Kilpatrick said, "We learn what we live." As Dewey expressed it,⁴

We always live at the time we live and not at some other time, and only by extracting at each present time the full meaning of each present experience are we prepared for doing the same thing in the future. This is the only preparation which in the long run amounts to anything.

The philosophy of experience as basic for learning characterizes the philosophy of education today. It also implies that the function of the teacher is to guide the pupil into *situations in which he will experience that which it is desired he should learn*. The teacher is a guide, a leader not a dictator, and selects the techniques to be used accordingly.

Purpose is basic for learning. The concept that purpose is

³ Lois Hayden Meek and others, *Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls with Implications for Secondary Education* (New York, Progressive Education Association, Committee on Workshops, 1940), p. 164.

⁴ John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1938), p. 51.

Transfer of learning. Transfer of learning seems to be related to the understanding of generalizations involved and their application. It is important, therefore, in homemaking education that generalizations be thoroughly understood and many applications of them be studied.

Generalizations may be of several kinds and you may have to help pupils to see what kind of a generalization is guiding their action. For example, a generalization may be a summary of facts such as, "*Families have many kinds of resources—money, time, energy, skills of family members, and so forth—which they use interchangeably to get what they want out of life,*" or "*Individuals differ in both rate and pattern of growth.*" Other generalizations may be statements of cause and effect such as, "*Children will be more likely to be emotionally stable if they feel secure at home,*" or "*A lower temperature during roasting of meat prevents loss by shrinkage.*" A third type of generalization that may be developed from a learning experience is a value judgment such as, "*A pretty centerpiece on the dinner table adds to family enjoyment of the meal,*" or "*Girls who follow the social customs of their group get along better than others.*"

Because of the opportunities provided for associating the new with that which is already known, transfer of learning from one situation to another takes place more easily and completely when the situations are similar. One may say in non-technical terms, we learn best in situations similar to those in which that learning will later be used. Therefore, it is important in homemaking education that teaching situations be very similar to home and life situations. This statement has far-reaching implications. We believe social customs should be developed in connection with actual social events, that foods should be taught on a meal basis, that child development should be studied through experiences with children. Home-economics teaching will succeed best in an environment similar to that of the homes of the pupils,

EDUCATIVE EXPERIENCE

Accepting the theory that experience promotes learning, it behooves you as a teacher to guide pupils into situations that will make it possible for them to live the experiences which you believe desirable and to guide them through these experiences successfully.

Guiding pupils into educative experience. To guide pupils into situations fruitful of desirable experience, you may proceed in several ways. First, you will recognize those situations in which they are now having experiences and use them as sources of class problems. For instance, if the pupils bring lunches to school, the situation is excellent for teaching food values and body needs, for developing managerial ability in planning, preparing, and packing lunches, and so on. If the pupils eat lunch at the school cafeteria, a situation exists through which food values and body needs may be taught through food selection, without preparation in the classroom. The alert teacher will see many such experiences of pupils as opportunities for class study.

Second, pupils may make suggestions for activities or experiences for the class which you will accept and act upon. This will happen continually where the pupils have been made to feel free, confident, and secure and where initiative has been developed to the utmost. In such cases the problem of the teacher lies in leading the class to evaluate the possibilities of the experience suggested, and to decide whether to carry out the activity. For instance, suppose some one in your class suggested that the group sell yarn dolls in school colors at the football game in order to make some money for their home-economics club. You would need to ask her what the group would get from such an activity that would be of value other than the money, and the decision whether or not to proceed with the sale would be based largely on the answer to that question. You would then be helping

them to select educative experiences, with judgment and purpose.

Third, you may sometimes lead the class into an experience which you believe is valuable by "setting the stage"—that is, by placing the class in a situation that will cause them to meet problems of value for them to solve. For example, one teacher believed that her class should study nutrition because malnutrition was common in the school. She suggested that the girls watch the first- and second-grade children as they selected their lunches in the school cafeteria and observe what they ate. The girls soon saw that some of the very thinnest children were not selecting nutritious lunches. They began talking about it in class. Very naturally the suggestion was made that they study the children and see what could be done for them. This developed into a class project in helping the children select lunches in the cafeteria. The class studied the children and watched their physical development through several months.

Fourth, you may suggest an activity to a few girls who later may suggest it to the rest of the class. This is an indirect way of introducing them to an experience. The advantage of this method is that the suggestion comes from the girls themselves. For instance, in one school a local merchant had suggested that the class might decorate his display window some time. The teacher talked the idea over with a couple of girls who were leaders in the class. They liked the idea and suggested it to the class with the result that the group entered into the project with enthusiasm. Sometimes similar suggestions may be made casually to a class a long time before you really anticipate that the opportunity for an experience may arise, as did one teacher who believed her girls should have some experience with little children. Several months beforehand she suggested to the class that some day they might bring some little tots to school to see how they would act. Frequently afterward she referred to

the time when children might be there, until one day she discovered that each girl in the class was looking forward to the child-study unit with keen interest, and each one had selected a youngster whom she wanted to bring for observation.

Fifth, you may yourself suggest some activity to the class and develop it into as nearly a purposeful experience as you can. From your broader vision you will see many situations which will give the class a desirable experience but which they do not recognize. Then, too, pupils in high school are unfortunately so accustomed to the teacher's leadership and domination that they naturally accept suggestions from that source; but you should try to develop initiative and leadership as far and as fast as you can, and to that end should see that problems which do come from the group are recognized, evaluated, and solved when possible.

This last method of guiding pupils into experiences of value is really that of the teacher suggesting an experience and then developing an interest in it and purpose for it. The best way to do this is, of course, to suggest problems and activities which are closely akin to the pupils' own problems, their own experiences, in which they are interested and for which they see a real purpose and value. Such problems should be large enough to challenge them.

When an experience is not itself appealing it can often be made so by associating it with things which are appealing, thus using the principle that interest flows from the interesting to the uninteresting. For example, girls are not as a rule much excited about mending, but if football boys want their sweaters darned, the girls may be very eager to do it for them. Again, a class may not care much about deciding which clothes will be best for just any baby, but if Mary's brother Joe is brought into the classroom and a play suit is planned for him, the class will become keenly interested.

Summarizing, we may say that you as a teacher may lead pupils into educative experiences (1) by recognizing, accepting, and using their own personal situations as class problems and activities; (2) by accepting suggestions for problems and activities made by the class, leading the class to decide upon the value of the problem and deciding to work it out; (3) by setting the stage; (4) by suggesting an activity to a few who will later suggest it to the entire class; (5) by suggesting the experience yourself and developing interest in it to the point where the class will carry it out purposefully.

Guiding pupils through experiences. Having led the pupils into an experience, it follows that you will guide them through that experience. You as a teacher will select the procedures or methods to be used. Several are available for you. The terms *method* and *technique* are frequently used more or less synonymously, for a method is a way of doing something and so is a technique, and educators differ in their use of the terms. We hear of the "discussion method" and we hear of the "technique of leading discussion." Sometimes the demonstration is a technique, sometimes a method. So without analyzing too deeply we will decide here to use the terms *method*, *technique*, and *procedure* more or less interchangeably.

A teaching method is a technique for promoting pupil learning which, under our present interpretation of learning, takes place most effectively when it occurs through self-purposed and self-directed experience. Human beings are not standardized, and therefore no method can be used with perfect success 100 per cent of the time. Techniques must be selected according to the purposes, goals, interests, and abilities of the group and according to the ability of the teacher to use them. Various techniques may be used to develop initiative and self-direction in pupils; other techniques will create situations in which individual and group

thinking will be stimulated; others will create situations in which groups will develop skills and also will learn to work well together.

If you desire to stimulate interest and purposeful thinking, you may do so through challenging discussions, through field trips, through talks by interesting people, through experimentation, and so on. If you want to develop ability to think independently and to plan effectively, you will use problem-solving techniques or experimental laboratory work. If you want to develop ability to carry through activities and to manage and to execute plans, you will use co-operative planning and problem-solving. Also, if you want to increase the information your pupils possess, you can do so by telling them, by pooling experiences through group discussion, by a study of references or examination of real things, by visiting with authorities, by exploring real situations, by experimentation, and by demonstration. If you want to develop the manipulative skills of your pupils you will have them meet real situations requiring those skills. If you want to develop attitudes, you will again, no doubt, try problem-solving, successful group and individual activities, or group discussions. It will be seen from this brief and incomplete analysis that problem-solving is important, that group discussion and co-operative planning should be used extensively, and that other devices and procedures are of value. The following chapters will discuss various methods and procedures in detail.

PROBLEMS

1. Select some one experience which you have had in the past few weeks, and analyze it carefully in terms of its educative and mis-educative elements in its influence upon you.
2. Select another experience and analyze it in terms of all of its educational elements. To what extent does the principle that one "learns as an entity" hold?
3. Describe in detail a disciplinary situation which you remember

from your high-school days. To what extent and how were emotional elements involved?

4. Compare the relative degrees to which "purposeful learning" has operated for you in this methods course and in any other one course which you have completed.

5. Describe one situation which you yourself know intimately in which the philosophy of S. M. Andrews, "The Salt of Interest will make him drink," holds true.

6. How does the function of the teacher as described in this chapter compare with her function as you thought of it at the beginning of this school year?

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~ CHAPTER VII ~

Guiding Pupil Development: Problem-Solving Procedures

Life is one problem following another. Decisions are made continually—when to get up, what to wear, what to study first, what to do about the soft tire. Both one's home life and one's school life are filled with decisions, with plans. A school girl living at home assists in solving many of her mother's everyday problems; in addition she meets many personal ones—problems concerning her own conduct, her work at school, her relations with others, the clothes she wears, the money she has to spend, and so on. Therefore, problem-solving experiences are important in learning, are important in pupil development.

PROBLEM-SOLVING

The best way for a girl to learn to meet and solve the problems of everyday living is to meet them and solve them over and over again, with some wise person to guide her past serious pitfalls of poor judgment and ignorance. *Simply knowing facts will not insure that she will make wise decisions in facing new problems*, but facts used with good judgment, day by day, will give her increasing ability to master new situations.

If you expect to help girls to become skillful in solving their home problems and making wise selections, you will, according to the assumptions of Chapter VI, guide them into situations as nearly like those they find at home as you can; you will stimulate them to think through home problems, solve them for themselves, and test their solutions in some sound way. This is the essence of the problem method.

Steps in problem-solving. Problems in life are solved by the following steps:

1. The problem is met and recognized as such.
2. A decision is made to solve the problem.
3. The conditions are analyzed.
4. All available facts relating to the problem are gathered.
5. These facts are evaluated and those which are considered irrelevant are discarded.
6. A tentative or trial solution is found.
7. This solution is tested to see if it works.
8. If it does not, the facts are re-evaluated; other possible solutions are looked for; and a second solution is found and checked.

For example, a girl decides that she needs a new dress for general afternoon wear but does not know whether to make it or to buy it. She visits the stores to see the dresses in the ready-to-wear departments; then she looks at the various materials and patterns, figures how much it will cost to make the dress herself, and decides to do so. She selects the material and pattern; buys the materials and pattern; cuts out the dress, makes it, and wears it at the next club meeting. Her friends tell her that it looks very well, so she decides that the effort to make it was worth-while and that making the dress was a success.

In this illustration the girl faced a problem—the need for a new dress. She decided to solve it; she analyzed the conditions—she could either buy or make it. She collected the

data—investigated prices; then after gaining the needed information, she weighed the facts, made her decision, and carried out her plans. By wearing the dress to a social gathering she tested the results of her decision. Thus she followed the steps of problem-solving.

Parallel steps in teaching procedure. If you want to develop this same type of thinking ability in your pupils, you will see that they, not the teacher only, follow these same steps of problem-solving. Here are the steps in the teaching procedure.

1. See that the girls meet with problems in the classroom and elsewhere and *recognize* them as such—that is, guide them into problem situations.

2. Lead them to *want to solve* these problems and be sure that interest and a purposeful attitude of mind are developed.

3. Make sure that they *understand the situation*, namely, the conditions of the problem.

4. *Stimulate them to find the information* which is needed and guide them in finding it, when necessary.

5. Make sure that they *consider each fact carefully*, giving each its proper value, without prejudice or emotion.

6. Guide them in *arriving at a solution which is their own*—a result of their own thinking and obtained as a result of the facts assembled.

7. Guide them in *checking* on the validity of their solution.

8. Usually guide them in *applying* the solution to other similar situations.

The technique of problem teaching consists, then, in guiding the student through each of these steps so that the *student herself does the thinking*.

A better idea of the similarity of these steps in thinking and steps in teaching will be obtained by comparing them side by side, as follows:

Thinking Process

1. A problem is met and recognized.
2. A decision is made to find the solutions.
3. Conditions are analyzed.
4. Facts are assembled.
5. These facts are evaluated.
6. A trial solution is found.
7. The solution is tested.
8. If the solution is workable, it is accepted; if not, another is tried.
9. The solution is applied when similar problems arise.

Teaching Process

1. The teacher makes sure that problems are experienced by the class or an individual and are recognized as such.
2. Interest and purpose for solving the problem are developed or increased.
3. The conditions of the problems are made clear.
4. The teacher sees that the class or individual pupils assemble the information needed.
5. The teacher leads the pupils to weigh the facts assembled in order to determine both their relevancy and their value.
6. The teacher guides the pupils to find all possible solutions and to select a tentative one.
7. The teacher guides in testing the tentative solution or sometimes in testing the several possible solutions.
8. The teacher leads the class or individual to decide whether or not the solution is good, or if several are tried, which is best.
9. The teacher guides the class to see the application of the solution to other similar situations.

Let us illustrate these steps with what you might do in a classroom situation. Suppose that the girls in class suggest that a new picture is needed in the department living-room. The situation involves many problems. Will the superintendent allow money for a picture and how much? What picture would be most pleasing in that particular place? Perhaps

a wall hanging would be more interesting. Could they make one? A situation thus arises from a suggestion of the girls, which through your skillful questioning may develop into a desire to secure a picture to improve the room. Your next steps would be to lead them to think of the problems involved in securing the picture; then to take up each problem in turn, leading and organizing the girls to secure the information they need, from books, the school officials, and stores; to try various pictures or hangings, evaluating each; and finally to make the purchase. By following this procedure you would lead your class through the steps of problem-solving.

Sources of problems. Problems may grow out of class or pupil experiences, or they may introduce and initiate class or pupil experiences, as suggested in Chapter VI. While girls vary in different communities, they are in the main very much alike. The study of your girls and their homes will enable you to see problems of the greatest value to your own particular group, though many of the problems which are common to all groups will be found in situations involving:

Relationships between family members

Relationships between friends

Responsibilities of the family and its various members

Use and management of money

Selection of food for self and family

Planning and preparation of meals for the family

Care of food

Buying of food for the family

Decisions concerning what to wear

Selection of clothes

Management of clothes for cleanliness, repair, durability, and appropriateness

Making the home attractive

Care of the bedroom

Care of other rooms

Care of younger brother or sister

Relations with boys

Personal health
Personal appearance and actions
Social customs
Social activities

Criteria for problem. The difficulty for the teacher of home economics is not in locating problems but in choosing those problem-solving experiences which will be of the greatest interest and value for her particular group of pupils and in deciding how they may best be used. All problems are not equally valuable from the standpoint of learning, and so a teacher will use her judgment in helping her class select from possible experiences those which will be of the highest value to them.

Problem-solving experiences contribute to the ultimate goal of both class and teacher, and should be connected in a sequence of thinking and activity. If, while thinking of your own class group, you can answer *yes* to each of the following questions, you may be confident that the problem is worthy of solution.

1. Is the problem of keen interest to my class?
2. Does it fit a need; is there a desire to solve it?
3. Will it be a challenge to most of the group, yet not be too difficult?
4. Will it demand real thinking?
5. Does it call for thinking in a situation similar to that in which such a problem would be faced in life by these pupils?
6. Will it lead into a learning experience that should be developed?

KINDS OF PROBLEMS

Problems differ in the type of thinking involved and in the purpose for which they are used. Some are used to *develop information or a new principle* by going from specific cases to a generalization. These have been called *inductive* or *developmental* problems. Other problems are used to lead the class to develop discrimination and ability to weigh values, and to *make decisions judicially*. These

have been called judgment problems. In other cases problems are used to guide pupils in *thinking creatively*, namely in planning. These have been called creative problems, though *planning problems* would be a better term.

Developmental problems. Three courses are open to you when you wish your class to understand a new fact, principle, or criterion for judgment. You may tell it to them, show illustrations of its use, and then assign a lesson involving its application. You may assign text or other reading material that explains the principle or generalization and its use and follow this with an assignment involving its application. Or you may lead the class to solve several problems, the solutions of which are based upon a common principle, and from the comparison of the solutions of these problems, develop the principle or generalization itself. With the first two methods the pupils gain information by telling or by reading, but they gain it by teacher dictation and in a way unrelated to its actual use. With the third method the information is gained *through its use*—by discovering it *for themselves* in the process of problem-solving, that is, through developmental problems.

A class needing information for the solution of inductive problems may secure it in several different ways. They may draw from their own past experience; they may study and examine real things; they may experiment; or they may consult authorities in person or in the printed page. For example, suppose a class decides to have uniform aprons for the laboratory. You may state the problem this way: "We find that we are in need of aprons and have decided to have them all alike, but before we begin to make our selection we had better decide on a basis for our judgment. You have all used many kinds of aprons at home; what qualities must our school aprons have to be satisfactory?" Here you are utilizing the varied experiences of the group to work out a list of the essentials which will become the criterion for

selection of the aprons. This procedure can only be followed when the girls have had the necessary experience, for it is impossible to draw experiential information from any group which does not have it. "You cannot get blood from a turnip."

Another way of attacking the problem might be to say, "Here are several aprons which you girls have brought from home and from the store. Look them over and decide which might be satisfactory and why you think so. After you have made your selection, and when you are ready to give your *reasons for them*, we will decide upon the points you think must be considered in selecting the aprons we shall use." In this case you are having the girls examine the actual articles and evaluate each according to their present limited judgment. From their study and comparison of their various ideas they will develop a standard by which to judge aprons. This standard will embody the new facts needed for selecting their own aprons. In each illustration above, the class, through inductive thinking, determines the solution of the problem and discovers the new facts. In both cases the problem served the same purpose, but the presentation differed. In the first illustration the standard was developed and then applied in several judgment problems. In the second, several small judgment problems were used developmentally to determine the standard.

Judgment problems. As we "learn to do by doing," so we develop good judgment through experiences involving many decisions—by solving many judgment problems. Good judgment is not a generalized ability in itself, though we do hear people say, "She has good judgment." That is, we cannot develop in our pupils the ability to make wise decisions at all times and for all things, but we can develop a habit of taking careful thought before making decisions, of weighing values, of evaluating all facts, and of judging without bias; all of which call for clear thinking. Since a decision is always made in a specific situation, it will be necessary to make

this type of problem very definite. Concrete judgment problems are commonly used when judging finished products in food preparation, when deciding which of two or more plans for a club activity is better, when judging finished garments, or when deciding which commodity to buy. This development of judgment concerning specific things may be secured through the solving of a series of specific problems involving decisions.

Suppose that in the case of the class aprons, the girls decided to make the aprons. They would need to select material. Before making a final decision they should study many samples or bolts of material and determine the quality of each. You might present the problem to your class in some such way as this: "Here are several pieces of material for aprons, which your committee has brought from the store. You decided yesterday upon the qualities of a suitable material. Look these over and separate them into three piles—one of those quite suitable, one of those that might do, and a third pile containing those which are the best." This is one large problem involving many smaller decisions, since the acceptance or rejection of each piece of material represents a decision.

Or you might say, "Here are a number of samples of materials which might be used for aprons. Some are good, and others not. Suppose you take each sample, one at a time, and decide whether it will be suitable for our aprons, satisfying the conditions that you set up yesterday for selecting the material." Here each sample also presents a different judgment problem.

Good judgment is developed by making decisions and checking the quality of those decisions in one of several ways: (1) by trying out the decisions to see if they work well; (2) by comparing them with the decisions of others, as given in person or in print; or (3) by comparing them with the judgment of a group. Therefore the teaching proc-

ess is not finished until the pupils' solutions have been checked in one of these three ways.

Planning problems. One of the most worth-while abilities to develop is good managerial ability. This is true for the teacher, administrator, businessman, homemaker, high-school boy or girl. Management involves planning and then seeing that those plans are carried out with modifications as needed. If we are to see that pupils live that which we want them to learn, we will see that they themselves do much planning—or solve many planning problems. Boys and girls in school plan their day, plan their lessons, plan for fun after school, plan class meetings, plan home responsibilities.

Traditionally teaching has involved much planning, but *planning by the teacher with the result assigned to the pupils; now pupil participation in planning for their own educational experiences is recognized as better teaching.* The teacher concerned with pupil growth in self-direction will plan to have her pupils plan. One caution, however, needs to be observed—namely, pupils should not be expected to plan activities without adequate information and without the development of needed judgment. So doing results in inadequate plans and preparations and worse still in developing the habit of making judgments without adequate facts. In other words *planning problems should always be preceded or accompanied by developmental steps through which needed information is secured and judgment gained.*

What may follow a breaking of the sequence is illustrated by the experience of a young teacher who was having her class plan for new window shades, which the superintendent had said might be bought for the laboratory. She took out a number of shades from the stores, unrolled them in front of the class, and asked, "Which of these do you like the best?" The girls looked them over, part of the class selecting one shade and part another. The teacher tried to get them to agree, but the more she worked the more sharply the class

divided. She was unable to effect an agreement, for they had formed into two cliques, each determined by personal bias. She had worded the statement of the problem poorly, but her chief mistake was in having the class decide on shades for the room without first having them think through what should determine their decision and then having them judge each shade accordingly. She omitted the developmental steps and therefore failed to develop the judgment of the group before allowing the final plan to be made.

Sometimes conditions will not permit a teacher to carry the sequence through the creative stage in school. For instance, as a result of a series of developmental problems a class may have agreed that a girl should always be considerate of her mother and other members of her family. The teacher then may present several case situations and have the girls decide the propriety of certain actions, thus developing some judgment concerning the meaning of consideration in one's own family. She will probably not carry the matter farther. She may, however, be able to encourage some of the girls to undertake the development of courtesy and consideration as home projects, in which case the home project may be the creative problem for a few of the girls. *The home-economics club may carry out a courtesy week and thus encourage practice of consideration for others in school—a creative problem for some.*

Case problems. When problems are stated in terms of specific situations they are sometimes termed case problems. The following is an example of a case problem:

Mary Ann, who is sixteen years old, works at various jobs after school and earns a little more than enough money to pay her expenses. Her father is a day laborer and barely makes a living for the family of five children of which Mary Ann is the oldest. Should she be willing to give assistance at home, or should she save her money to go to college when she has finished high school?

You will observe that this problem is stated in terms of a certain girl who may or may not be known to the class. The conditions involved are stated for a particular girl, and the decisions called for will be made for this particular case. This device has some advantages. It makes the problem concrete. It is possible to set up a case situation involving intimate social relationships which can then be discussed in an impersonal way, the underlying principle being developed without direct application to any member of the class. Many problems in social relations or personality development may be handled in this way, where too-personal problems would be inadvisable. On the other hand, a case problem loses in interest unless the specific case has a close relationship to the group. If it can be made very similar to common experiences of the class members, or if it can deal with some one not too remote from the class, it will be more interesting. The case situation needs to be very carefully and completely pictured; otherwise the class will have insufficient data and will be led to draw conclusions that might not be warranted if all of the facts were known, and allowing unwarranted conclusions will develop poor habits of thinking. The following case problem is an illustration of one that is poorly stated in that insufficient evidence is given.

A sophomore in high school has been allowed to visit her cousin in a nearby city for a week. Since she will have to travel on the train and will be going many places, she and her mother, after looking through her wardrobe, decide that she will need some new clothes. Let us see if we can help plan her wardrobe for the trip she is going to take.

No adequate plan can be made for the above case for there is no information concerning the money which may be spent, the size, coloring, and type of the girl, the clothes she has on hand, or the facilities for the purchase or making of the clothes. Without these the solution would be pure guess work.

Case problems can be much overworked. They are good if the "case" is known to the group, but imaginary ones grow monotonous. "*Study real things*" is a good slogan, to be changed here to "*Study real cases.*"

Importance of clarifying problems. Many times problem situations are discussed when the problem has not been clearly stated but is in the mind of the group. However, thinking is usually more accurate and clear-cut if the situation is clarified with a well-worded statement of the problem. A problem well stated is a problem well begun, but stated well for the teacher does not necessarily mean stated well for the pupil. It should be expressed clearly, completely, and in terms within the understanding of all of the group. Many words in the English language have several meanings. It is surprising how long a group can talk about a certain problem before it is discovered that several interpretations are being used and that therefore the group is talking at cross-purposes. It is wise to be very sure from the start that every one is thinking of the same conditions in the problem, and that all the conditions are known.

Guiding the class to find the information needed. We have said that information should be the means to an end, not an end unto itself. Yet one thinks with facts, and facts are essential. Therefore, we are faced with two questions. If we base our teaching on pupil experiences and especially on those which are pupil purposed, teacher-pupil planned, executed, and evaluated, when do pupils learn all the facts they should know? When problem-solving procedures are used, how do the pupils gain the information which is needed?

The answer to the first question is a challenge to you, the teacher. If you can find no opportunity for experiences and no suitable problem involving the information which you think should be taught, you may well question your reasons for teaching it. Probably it should not be taught at all.

The answer to the second question is not so simple. First

you will need to pool the experiences of the group to see what they already know. Then the class can determine what information is yet needed. At this point you will frequently have to challenge them for more facts or throw doubt on what has been suggested in order to stimulate further investigation. You may find it advisable to give some information, to throw out thought-raising questions, to have reference materials available, or to make suggestions as to where information may be found. Perhaps you will have to provide a reading hour. You may need to arrange for a field trip, an experiment, or perhaps for consultation with some person of experience. By whatever method the facts are acquired, *the teacher's responsibility in this part of the thinking process is to see that the class is not satisfied with a solution until they have considered all sides of the question and secured all the relevant facts.*

More independence in thinking will be developed if the members of the class get their information from a first-hand examination of and experience with real situations and things instead of from reading about them. Girls will remember how to tell the difference between cotton and linen if they study the two fibers, breaking them, burning them, looking at them through the microscope, and experimenting with their absorbent qualities. It will take more time than reading, yes, but it will develop infinitely better retention and a better foundation for the judging of textiles.

The story is told that in the Middle Ages, during the era of philosophy and before the era of science, several philosophers were arguing over how many teeth a horse had. One younger member of the group had the temerity to suggest that they look into the mouth of a horse and count the teeth there. The older members of the group scorned the idea as something that was not done in philosophy. A good home-economics teacher must not be afraid to "look into the mouth of the horse."

Leading the class to evaluate the facts. When problems are being solved by group thinking and through group discussion, it is essential that each member should carefully, weigh and evaluate each fact presented for consideration. You may encourage this individual evaluation by asking each member for her opinion, by calling for volunteers, by asking one girl what she thinks of the judgment of another, by yourself making challenging statements or citing case situations where the principle involved may or may not apply, and sometimes by insisting that the pupils be able to quote reliable authority for their statements. There is some danger of allowing one or two in a group to dominate and permitting the rest of the class to accept the opinions of others without due consideration. This is an insidious fault in your technique, for it creeps on you unaware and encourages dependent thinking in the group.

It is most important for you to develop independent, critical thinking among your pupils. This can only be done by leading each member of the group always to think for herself. You can assist in developing independent thinking by asking girls to list the advantages and disadvantages of a plan, and by asking the opinions of as many members of the class as seems wise. You cannot be in a hurry and force quick replies, for it *takes a certain amount of time to think well*. Sometimes you may want to suggest that they all think the problem over for a day and ask for some other opinions about it. If each girl is led to see that good thinking requires careful consideration of every fact and demands that facts be discarded as irrelevant only after careful thought, there will be less inclination toward loose thinking.

One serious pitfall should be guarded against; the class must not be allowed to get into a state of tense emotion where one group will be pitted against another. The first sign of such a condition will usually be a remark made with too much emphasis or intensity by one girl, and a quick,

rather heated response by another. You may check this immediately by calling on some one else, by making a few remarks yourself, by suggesting further study or a possible experiment, by directing the thinking to other phases of the problem, or by otherwise temporarily diverting attention from the point in question.

Tensions frequently develop over problems dealing with social relationships such as: "Should a high-school girl be expected to have only those friends of whom her mother approves?" "Should several young people drive to a town some twenty or thirty miles from home to attend a movie, without an adult person in the group?" Acute tensions may be avoided if discussion of such questions is kept entirely impersonal.

Leading the class to arrive at its own solution. You will of course have a solution of the problem in your own mind; in fact you should see every possible solution, for often more than one will be acceptable.

If, in planning a meal for some occasion, you have one certain menu which you want adopted, you will probably dominate the class just as a certain student teacher once did when she wanted a particular color plan for the redecoration of the laboratory but wanted it to be suggested by her class. After she had taught the lesson, she reported to the supervisor that "it went off just fine," and the class decided to use the colors she had in mind. Some months later the girls told the supervisor that they decided that way because they knew Miss _____ wanted those colors. The predetermined plan of the teacher had hampered the thinking of the class. If you are to develop the independent thinking ability of your girls, you must guide those girls to formulate their own conclusions, to make their own plans, and ultimately to arrive at their own decisions.

A student teacher once asked, "What will you do if the class comes to the wrong decision?" The answer is, first make

very sure that the solution you have in mind is the right one. Many homemaking problems have more than one right decision. Perhaps one way will be more economical than another; perhaps one may give a slightly different product than another; perhaps one will require less time; but any one of several may be satisfactory depending upon the conditions desired. A teacher should recognize the possibilities of the various solutions. If a problem has only one right solution, it will be fairly easy to show that this is so. If several are possible, it may sometimes be advisable to prevent the class from coming to a final decision until further information is secured, or until better judgment is developed. Or you may decide to be satisfied if your class comes to a good solution even though it is not the best according to your judgment.

If your class decides on something with which you cannot agree, accept their decision for the time, casting some doubt on it, if it seems wise. Later come back to the same principle with a new problem that will bring out another point of view and probably result in a different decision. To force your own ideas on a class will settle the problem for the time being but will not change their attitude, and true learning will not occur till that change is made.

When a group is attempting to arrive at a solution of a problem, just as when it is evaluating facts, one must guard against emotional bias. If a class becomes divided, and a deadlock seems possible, you can often challenge their thinking or suggest the need for further information. When the problem is to develop a plan, and several suggested plans will be satisfactory, you may put the question to a vote and let the majority rule, or you may divide the class and let each group test out its own solution and compare their results. A deadlock, if it occurs, is usually due to bad sequence, leading to inadequate thinking. You probably have allowed your class to make a final decision before their judgment has been sufficiently developed.

A student teacher neatly avoided such a situation in helping her girls plan luncheon sets to be made for their own homes. Before she took over the class, the girls had become interested in tied-and-dyed luncheon sets and were determined to make them. The young teacher thought that these were too difficult for them to make artistically, but she did not want to dominate her class. She wanted the girls to see for themselves that they could make other more beautiful sets. So she asked the girls first to tell how they would judge a luncheon set. When they had set up their standards, she opened a suitcase containing a number of luncheon sets and showed them a very simple beautiful one, from which they might get suggestions. The class decided that the set satisfied all of their requirements. She showed another set, also good; then another, calling for their opinion about each, on the basis of the standards they had previously established. Some sets were good, others poor. At last she drew out a tied-and-dyed luncheon set, which the girls at once agreed did not meet their standards. So the teacher helped her girls develop judgment, by first having them determine a criterion for judgment, following this with many judgment problems until the discrimination of the class was well developed, then letting them make their final decision. Such a sequence of problems will save many a difficult situation.

Guiding the class in testing the solution. It is a common mistake of some teachers to pass judgment on the solutions of their pupils rather than to let them check their own. The teacher herself too often criticizes the meal or the completed dress instead of allowing the pupils to appraise their own work. Too often she also guides the planning so carefully that most of it is hers and not the work of the class. Of course she wants things to come out well. It takes self-control and much human understanding to allow a class to work out its own plans, carry them out, and check its own results. It takes courage to allow a class to find out its own mistakes, but

mistakes are wholesome when met in an objective attitude. In each case you will need to decide whether your class will profit more by testing a solution and finding that it is a wrong one or by being prevented from making the mistake. Certainly learning entirely by mistakes is wasteful and disheartening, and keen judgment will be needed to decide how far to go. Since interest in learning is stimulated when results are satisfactory, few mistakes and many successes should be the rule.

In life the solutions of problems are tested in four ways:

1. We check our decision against the decision of some one who is an authority or some one we think knows more than we do, as when we consult a reference book or talk with an expert.

2. We check our decisions against group judgment, as when we decide that one route is the best to take on an auto trip but find that the rest of the group prefer another route. We then compare our ideas.

3. We try out the solution to see if it will apply to other situations, as when, having found out that pouring boiling water through a cherry stain on a tablecloth will remove it, we try the same method on a coffee stain.

4. We carry out our plan to see if it will work. For instance, when our automobile is stalled, we decide that perhaps it is because the gas line is stopped up. We clean out the gas pipe and try again to start the car.

As in these life situations, you may lead your class to check the solutions of its problems in any one of these four ways. Suppose that a girl has selected a design for a dress she is to make. Before definitely deciding to use the pattern she may ask your advice, and you, after talking it over with her, may suggest that she show it to her mother for further criticism. You and the mother represent authority to the girl; she is checking her decision against that of authority.

Or the class may have worked out its own recipe for gingerbread, but before the girls mix the ingredients, you have them compare the class recipe with those given in various cook-books. Here again you are leading the class to consult authority. Instead of consulting the cook-books, however, you might have them make gingerbread by their own recipe, thus testing their solution by carrying out the plan.

With some problems you may lead your class to apply the principle developed to other situations. For example, when a class is setting a table, the question arises, "Which is the better way to place a square lunch cloth on a square table—with the lines of the table or diagonally?" The class decides that the former looks better because the lines of the cloth then follow the lines of the table. The teacher will then see that they test their decision by asking, "Will it always hold true?"

Testing the solution and applying the principles involved to other situations completes the cycle of the problem-solving process. If the solution proposed is satisfactory, you and your group are then ready to move into new experiences.

PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of problem situations which a girl finds in her own home, from which you might draw problems for class use.
2. Make a similar list of class situations from which you might draw problems in social relationships.
3. Suppose that a ninth-grade class has solved the problem of whether it would be better for them to make or to buy their pajamas by deciding that it would be better to buy them. Write out the problems you would then use to develop enough judgment so that the girls might be trusted to buy their own pajamas thereafter.
4. If you are a member of a class in methods of teaching, select one problem which the instructor has used during the last few days and analyze the steps she followed in leading the class to solve it.
5. If you are teaching, select one problem which you have used recently in your class and decide how many of the suggestions in this chapter you have used.

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~ CHAPTER VIII ~

Guiding Pupil Development: Group Discussion

Leading group discussion is not confined to schoolrooms. Whenever a group of people gathers to discuss a problem, group discussion takes place, and someone is a leader if the discussion is effective. Discussion occurs whenever a decision or a plan is to be made by a group of people. Discussion also has a place in groups where the purpose is to stimulate the thinking of the members. It would seem then that ability to lead group thinking through group discussion is a valuable attribute of teaching. .

Conditions necessary. A group of people, no matter what their age, do not think together effectively until conditions prevail which will satisfy the needs of the group. According to Lawrence Taylor,¹ every person in a discussion group needs:

1. A sense of belonging
2. A share in planning the group goals
3. A feeling of contributing to human welfare
4. A clear picture of what is expected of each member of the group
5. Responsibilities that challenge
6. Definite signs of progress toward the goal that each member has helped to plan

¹ Cited in: Peggy McLaren, "Leadership Qualities Described," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 44 (September, 1952), p. 514.

7. Confidence in the leader based on fair treatment, due recognition, loyalty, and security

Among the conditions which may satisfy such needs, the first is such a *feeling of respect for each person in the group* by all the others that a comfortable "climate" results, in which each feels free to say what he thinks. So long as any one feels restrained by a teacher, leader, or other group members from saying what he truly thinks, the group cannot function smoothly as a discussion group.

The next prerequisite for good discussion is that *the group has a common goal*. This goal may be to gain a better understanding of some subject or situation, or it may be to arrive at a plan of action that the group intends to take. As an illustration of the former, an eighth-grade class might want to understand, "Why do our parents treat us like grown-ups one minute and like children the next?" The group here accepts "understanding" as the goal. No group action is required. To illustrate how a plan of action may be the goal, let us assume that this eighth-grade class want to entertain their parents. Then their discussion would have as its goal making a plan of action for the occasion, one they as a group can accept and as a group strive to achieve. No matter what the goal, if it is accepted by the group, one of the conditions conducive to good discussion has been met.

A third condition for good discussion is *a problem before the group which they want to explore or solve*. If the group as a whole recognizes the problem as a real problem of the group and feels a need to discuss it, there is a common goal. Then discussion in its best sense occurs and real thinking takes place. A lack of this group agreement frequently explains why some problems proposed by the teacher or brought up by some class member may not stimulate good discussion.

A fourth condition necessary for good discussion is *an informal and comfortable physical setting for the group*. Some

arrangement of the seating so that everyone can easily see and hear everyone else is helpful. This suggests a circle or a U-shaped grouping of chairs or sitting around a table. It also suggests that the seats be rather compactly placed so all can hear well. It has been found that groups sitting in formal rows or scattered around a large room have difficulty in beginning or keeping up good discussion even when they are dealing with a problem of real concern to them.

A fifth condition concerns the size of the group. *Small groups seem to discuss more readily* than those that are so large that only a few can be heard. For most discussion groups twenty to twenty-five has been found the outside limit, if total participation is desired. Often a group of this size may be even more productive if regrouped into little groups of five or six people so they can talk more readily with each other. These "buzz" groups, or "huddles," as they are some times called, meet the conditions of physical arrangement to get maximum discussion, provided that the goal, the problem, and the comfortable relations among group members are also present.

Beginning the discussion. In any discussion group a little time for "warming up" will be needed before the "climate" is right for each to share his thoughts with the rest in discussion. If members of the group are strangers, it may be well at the first meeting to have each tell a little about himself. This situation will not be true in high school except possibly at the beginning of the year. If the pupils come into your class from other classes where discussion is seldom used they will need to change their mood and their expectation of being directed. In this case, too, a warming-up period may be needed before discussion will flow freely. The leader or teacher will need to take more responsibility for guiding group thought than should be necessary after the group becomes "at home with itself."

In attempting to start discussion you will want to be sure

the problem is clear in the minds of all and that it is a problem they are interested in solving or exploring. A group does not think together effectively until all members are thinking on a common problem. A challenging problem is the first essential of effective group discussion.

For example, in a ninth-grade group you might have the problem of who will work together in the kitchens when starting a unit in foods. Discussion might be initiated in this manner. "Next week we will be ready to prepare our first small breakfast as you planned yesterday. We did not discuss the management of the work and time or the recipes we were to use. We will need to do that, but I wonder if we should not decide how we will work together in the kitchens, who will work with whom and in which kitchens. How do you think we should decide this?" With such a statement you have stated the problem.

If your ninth-grade group has had little experience with class discussion you may find it necessary to ask a few leading questions before you can get the discussion started. Such questions as these could be used, "How shall we pick our working partners?" "Shall the same girls work together all the time?" "Shall we organize our groups into families?" "How shall we decide which group is to work in which kitchen?"

Next, you could have someone write on the board the methods that might be suggested such as: let's choose the girls we want to work with, we could draw straws, you could assign us, and so on. The pupils will probably not be aware of the learning they might acquire from the experience of group work, so you may need to guide them to examine the consequence of choosing partners by each proposed method by asking, "What advantages do you see in drawing straws?" You will want to do the same for each method suggested by the group. If they want to decide quickly on choosing their own friends, you may want to

of human relationships because they bring into the classroom a vivid portrayal of a situation.

Keeping the discussion going. The task of keeping the discussion going is one which may be easy with a class which has long experience in discussion. On the other hand, with an inexperienced group considerable direction from the teacher or chairman may be needed. The problem under discussion should be kept constantly before the group. In an experienced discussion group the members will usually take the responsibility of seeing that this is done. It is an ideal situation when someone in the class says, "I think we are getting off the point. Shouldn't we get back to it?"

Many times the teacher or chairman may have to guide the remarks back to the problem under discussion, especially in an inexperienced discussion group. If the group has wandered, you may need to say, "I believe we have gone this far now" followed by a brief review of the points already made, or "The last point that applies to our problem was," or "I wonder if we shouldn't go back to Mildred's remark that"

Sometimes pupils will wander from the problem deliberately with the hope of getting the teacher confused, or they may suddenly become interested in some other problem or suggestion that has been made. You will need to sense the situation and, if it is a bluff, be quick enough to recognize it as such and bring the group thinking back to the subject. If they have wandered because of interest in something else, you will need to decide quickly whether the new interest is of sufficient importance for the class to give some time to it, or whether the class should be brought back to the original problem. Sometimes a new problem can be discussed briefly and then laid aside for later consideration. An incident of this kind occurred in a home-management class in which a daily time schedule for a homemaker was being planned. *The question arose as to who should be scheduled to build*

the fires in the mornings. One girl said she knew a newly married woman who was getting up first and building the fires. The girls fell to discussing the propriety of this and one asked, "Don't you think a wife can train her husband to do as she wants him to?" At this point the teacher intervened and asked whether they would like to take up the problem of rights and relationships of husbands and wives for a later discussion, which they were, of course, eager to do. Then they went back to their discussion of a plan for the daily work of the home.

To keep the discussion going you may help the weak side of an argument and keep the question open until, if possible, the group has brought out all the facts and agrees on a solution. A good leader never imposes her opinion on the group, for such an imposition will stifle thinking and discussion; at times, however, it may seem wise for a leader to suggest her opinion in order to arouse a controversy. Sometimes she can bring in an opposing idea to stimulate further thinking. But a good leader will be heard as little as possible and then only for the purpose of stimulating her group toward better thinking and expression. She will always make it possible for the maximum leadership to come from group members.

The blackboard is a great aid to clear organization of thinking and discussion, since the points brought out may be kept before every one. One caution, however, may be given: write quickly and only when points are worth recording, because interest often wanes while a group waits for material to be placed on the board. Using some group member to serve as a recorder may often be advisable.

All of the available information possessed by a group can be brought out by questioning, by challenging their statements, by citing specific cases in which the facts they have given do or do not apply, and by suggesting the possibilities of deeper thinking. However, it will frequently be necessary for a class to seek more knowledge from sources other than

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their own experience. They may need to study, to experiment, or to go out after facts from original sources. Perhaps committees may be appointed to find the needed information.

Sometimes a leader makes the mistake of trying to draw from a group information which it does not possess. This is especially true of an inexperienced teacher. If you should be that teacher, do not make the mistake of thinking that your class is very "dumb." A group cannot think without information—hence the importance of discussing only problems that are at least within the margin of their experience. If your class members do not know the needed facts, you may break up the original problem into smaller parts that are within the experience and knowledge of the group, or you may stop the discussion and give them an opportunity to get the needed information.

A good leader watches the facial expressions of those before her for evidences of interest or ideas. She calls directly on anyone who may show such an indication without volunteering, for many people are hesitant about speaking in a group and need to be encouraged. One may call directly on the timid girl when it is evident that she has something to say, since helping her to express herself when she does have an idea, and giving due consideration to her suggestions, will encourage her to contribute more freely another time. If possible, the discussion should continue until everyone who has something worth-while to contribute has had an opportunity to express herself.

Comments may come slowly at first, especially if the problem is one requiring careful thought. This is to be expected, and a bit of silence is not bad while pupils organize their thoughts. On the other hand, awkward pauses are certainly to be avoided, for they have a deadening effect on both thinking and expression. The leader will need to be ready with stimulating remarks when such a situation becomes

imminent. Injecting a bit of humor will help at times to get the right atmosphere in the group. Teachers are too often prone to think that any fun or humor in a class shows poor teaching. As a matter of fact, wholesome humor indicates human interest and is a teaching asset in any classroom situation, especially in a discussion. This does not mean that the pupils are going to use the class hour for fun and play, but that they are to *learn joyfully*.

Closing the discussion. Sometimes, when the problem seems to be solved and everyone recognizes the fact, the discussion just closes itself. As a teacher you should recognize this moment and either dismiss the group or proceed to another problem. Sometimes the discussion ends because there seems to be nothing more to be said, even though the problem is not yet solved. Perhaps the group disagrees; perhaps it needs more information. In either case, if you are a good discussion leader, you will temporarily close the discussion, set a time for coming back to the problem, and provide for some means of securing more information, perhaps by appointing a committee to carry on the work. Or you may suggest a study period or some other means of increasing the knowledge of the group.

At other times the problem—such as planning an exhibit, a meal, or a party—really may have several solutions and the class may not agree upon a common plan. If you are alert, you will sense the disagreement and, before it is too late, have the class decide that the majority shall rule or that they shall draw lots to determine which plan to use.

Sometimes the discussion must be closed because of the lack of time, especially in class work, where the period is limited to a certain number of minutes. This is unfortunate, but you can and often should make or call for a summary of the points which have been brought up so far, and then plan for a continuation of the discussion during the next day's class.

Before closing a discussion in a class, the pupils should usually be started to think about something for consideration the following day, either a new aspect of the present problem or a new problem. In the latter case just enough may be said about it to *awaken some interest and to start the class thinking about it*. Solving this problem then becomes the next day's goal.

Difficult situations in group discussion. Several difficult situations may arise in group discussion: the group may all want to talk at once; no one may want to talk; one person may want to talk too much, to monopolize the time; or an emotional crisis or tension may appear.

When everyone wants to talk at once, interest is probably keen. You do not want to curb this interest and spontaneity, yet you do want every one to think together in a courteous, orderly manner. You want freedom but not rudeness. The best way to control such a situation is always to hold the rules of ordinary courtesy before the group and to be careful to follow them yourself. If you are just quiet until talking ceases, you will often make the members realize that they *have forgotten these rules*. Holding up your hand in an admonishing way, shaking your head, or smiling and saying, "One at a time, please," will accomplish the desired results if accompanied by the assurance that each one will have an opportunity to speak. It seems unnecessary to say that nagging, scolding, frowning, and sarcasm are inexcusable because they antagonize pupils and arouse emotional tensions.

Sometimes the opposite difficulty arises and *no one* wants to talk. This may be due to a lack of ideas, to a lack of interest, or to the fact that no one wants to be the first to speak. If it is the first, then the problem has not been well chosen; perhaps it is too difficult; perhaps it is not clear; perhaps it is not really a problem. If it is too difficult, a re-statement may help, or you may be able to break it up into smaller problems. You may reword the problem, attack

it from a different angle, or change your approach. You may have made a mistake in judgment and need to try again.

If at the beginning of a class or conference no one wants to be the first to speak, you may call on someone directly, either by word, nod, smile, or intent look in her direction. It is usually necessary to start only one person this way in order to have free discussion later. Apparent lack of interest may be due to unsatisfactory physical conditions, such as lack of fresh air, fatigue, incorrect temperature, or uncomfortable seats. The remedy for this is, of course, to recognize and improve the unsatisfactory condition. Again apparent lack of interest may be due to something that has happened before the students came to class. If so, let them talk it over, get it "out of their systems," as it were, and then come back to the problem of the day. No one can work well with half attention, so you may as well recognize the situation, accede to it for the time being, and then return to the regular work when the difficulty has been removed.

It is very common to find one or more persons who monopolize or attempt to monopolize the time of the group. This is a very difficult situation to manage, especially if it occurs in an adult class or conference. Such a person may be unusually quick and thoughtful or perhaps just a bluffer who aspires to recognition and attention. If the offender is very quick and alert, it will be only necessary to refuse to recognize her, thus not allowing her to speak until some others have had an opportunity to express their opinions. If however, she is a dominant person, claiming more than her share of attention, other tactics will sometimes be needed. Sometimes a suggestion that it may be well to hear what the rest have to say or merely a shake of the head are sufficient. It may even be advisable to ask the talkative one a question which she will be unable to answer or which will show up the falsity of the incorrect statement that she made with more emphasis than would ordinarily be desirable. In

other words, let her be made to feel somewhat out of place for the time. You will need to analyze each case on its merits, for to use the latter plan with a person who is keen, sensitive, and quick, and who speaks too much because of keen interest, enthusiasm, and intelligence, would certainly be a serious mistake.

Sometimes an emotional crisis appears in the class, as when two or more members get angry at each other—"mad," as the girls say. A situation like this is often very difficult to handle. It had best be ignored at first. Try diverting attention by asking questions or bringing up facts that will lead the thinking away from the irritating point. Sometimes a bit of humor will clear the air. If necessary, as a last resort, you may arbitrarily settle the matter, but certainly "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure."

Qualities of the leader of discussion. If the discussion leader is to get maximum participation of all members and help the group to make progress toward its goals, she needs to display certain qualities. She needs to be free from a drive to dominate, free of emotionalism, secure and confident so that she is willing to be a follower some of the time. As a teacher she should have a respect and concern for her pupils and believe so much in their ability to think for themselves that she allows them to do so. Along with this respect and belief, she needs a sensitivity to the feelings and moods of the group without being sensitive herself. In her concern for others she not only understands them and can "put herself in their place," but she also enjoys working with people.

Other important qualities in a leader are the ability to restrain her own desire to talk, and the ability to put into clear and simple language the ideas of the group. She needs to do this with vitality and enthusiasm, since her enthusiasm is reflected in the interest of her group. Patience and humor are also very useful in a discussion leader. A discussion leader needs enough knowledge of the problem under con-

sideration to recognize where facts are needed or are incorrectly given, and when important aspects of the problem are being ignored. The leader does not need to be a specialist in the subject. In fact if she knows a great deal more than anyone else she tends to become a resource to whom the group turns for authority rather than a leader of discussion. Of course a homemaking teacher is a specialist and knows more than her pupils. Therefore she must guard against doing the thinking for them.

Other characteristics of value in a leader are alertness, courtesy, consideration, and open-mindedness. She should be observant. She should be able to think on her feet while she watches for the reactions of others, and perhaps be able to write on the blackboard at the same time. She must think faster than or at least as fast as her group, and must be responsive to the thinking of others without allowing her personal opinion to be evident.

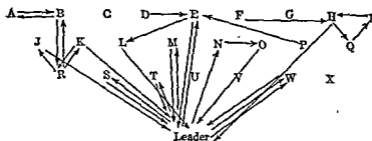
One must remember, however, that leadership in group discussion does not all come from the teacher or appointed discussion leader. Much leadership may come from the group members themselves. Therefore, the group leader can be herself, poised and relaxed, a real member of the group and not some superior overlord in control of the group.

Devices for evaluating discussion leading. The following devices will help you in evaluating the success of a leader of class discussion or conference groups. A conscientious answer to the questions below will indicate the measure of success.

<i>Did the leader</i>	<i>At</i>		
	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>times</i>
1. Make sure that the room and seating conditions were conducive to effective group thinking?	_____	_____	_____
2. Make sure that all understood the problem to be discussed?	_____	_____	_____
3. Give everyone an opportunity to contribute?	_____	_____	_____
4. Recognize contributions objectively?	_____	_____	_____

5. Challenge with suggestion, question, illustration, comments? _____
6. Manage difficult situations effectively, as they occurred? _____
7. Maintain interest throughout? _____
8. See that adequate information was available or secured? _____
9. Pick up suggestions for further problems? _____
10. Use restraint in the quantity of her contributions?
11. Use judgment in type and opportuneness of her contribution? _____
12. Recognize when the group was agreed and close the discussion or recognize that an agreement could not be reached and take the necessary procedure? _____

The amount of participation secured by the leader can be checked by lines on a seating chart (see below). Each line represents a contribution or suggestion made by one person, and the arrows show the direction from which the contribution came—whether the exchange took place between the leader and a member of the group or between members of the group themselves. According to this diagram, C, G, U, V, and X did not enter into the discussion at all. All others contributed at least once, some of them several times.



Visual aids in group discussion. Every kind of visual aid may be used at one time or another in group discussion, either to start the discussion or to help in securing the information needed to solve the problem. Visual materials may even form part of the problem itself.

The use of films, film strips, and slides as a device for introducing problems has been discussed earlier in this chap-

ter. Other visual materials may also be so used. For instance, *menu cards from many restaurants may be used to introduce a discussion of how to order a meal in a hotel.*

As has also been pointed out, the blackboard is a very efficient visual aid to clarifying and organizing the thoughts which are expressed by members of a discussion class.

There is almost no limit to the visual materials which can and are used in homemaking classes in discussing problems. Swatches of colored materials are used in the discussion of what colors are most becoming to each girl in class, in order to give the sensations of color and to develop information which will lead to generalizations of the use of color. Samples of place cards and examples and pictures of table decorations will help the class to visualize a real situation while discussing plans for an F.H.A.-Fathers' banquet. Articles which might be made for Christmas presents may give inspiration to girls in a class which is discussing what to do in a Christmas unit. These illustrations show that visual materials may aid in discussion because they give concreteness to ideas brought out.

PANEL DISCUSSION

A variation of discussion called the *panel* is widely used. Effective in some cases, a waste of time in others, it has sometimes gained ill repute, but under the right conditions, a panel discussion skillfully led, adequately prepared, and participated in by competent people is a valuable educative experience for all concerned. It offers an opportunity for co-operative thinking and may be stimulating to understanding.

Since panel discussions are not expected to solve problems but are expected to present various views and to stimulate thinking in the audience, it follows that problems best suited to panels are somewhat controversial in nature and probably have, at that time, no one answer. The problem should,

however, be definite, as concrete as possible, and concern a subject of timely interest.

The purpose of a panel discussion is to bring the opinions of well-informed people before an interested but less-informed group, to stimulate thinking, and to offer various viewpoints for consideration. It is often a good means of leading into total group discussion.

Panel techniques. A panel discussion is in reality a group discussion carried on by a small group before an audience. In class use this audience is the class itself. The panel group and chairman are seated, usually around a table, in front of the audience in such a way that every one can see and hear. This of itself limits the size of the audience for a successful panel, for school use, to twenty-five or thirty. When microphones are available, panel discussion is suitable for large audiences.

In public meetings the chairman usually begins by introducing the panel members to the audience, telling enough about each so that the audience may understand their background and experience. In class, introductions are not necessary, but the chairman usually tells the approach from which each panel member is to talk concerning the problem. The chairman then states the problem to be discussed, clarifying it, perhaps explaining why the panel had been formed, and informing the group that the latter part of the period will be given to discussion from the floor. The chairman then opens the discussion. Sometimes he asks each panel member to express his opinion in three to five minutes (rarely more) and then stimulates a free discussion between the members. In other cases he stimulates a free give-and-take at the start, and an attempt is made to approximate as closely as possible the spontaneity of a lively conversation. After about half an hour, he calls the panel discussion closed, summarizes the points brought out, and asks for questions or discussion from the audience.

The audience. The audience, of course, follows the panel through its discussion, storing up ideas and questions to be asked later. When the general discussion takes place, questions may be asked or comments made. In a rather formal situation, the chairman then calls upon some member of the panel to answer the question or reply to the comment. During this part of the discussion good chairmanship is important. Sometimes someone in the group is determined to overemphasize his viewpoint. Perhaps he feels he has a "message to give." If the question under discussion is extremely controversial, a special group may attempt to dominate the discussion. In such cases the chairman or moderator will exercise his prerogative and call the meeting to order.

Panel participants. The chairman *must* be *resourceful*, think quickly, be tactful but firm, and be well informed about the problem under discussion. If he has a keen sense of humor, all the better. He himself offers few contributions but mainly stimulates others in the panel to contribute. He holds the discussion to the problem, organizes and integrates the contributions of others, emphasizes significant points, and sees that all members of the panel have the opportunity to contribute adequately.

Panel members should be selected because of their superior experience with the problem, and because of their ability to think quickly and speak easily. They should represent all points of view concerning the problem and should be co-operative, fair-minded, and by all means have no "axe to grind."

Preliminary preparation. It is *not easy* to prepare for a panel discussion. Careful planning and organization are absolutely necessary for an effective result. Talks must not be staged; yet they should be planned before the meeting. The problem and key questions should be thought out ahead of time, and panel members should think them through carefully. Panels that have been ineffective have usually been

poorly planned or sometimes not planned at all. Such was the case in an experience of one of the authors when she went into an educational meeting of about one hundred people, to be met by an acquaintance who said, "Come on up here and take part in the panel." "What is the problem under discussion?" she asked. "I don't know; but it doesn't matter. Come on." Needless to say, that panel group put on an extemporaneous show but not much else.

Class use. Panels can be used effectively in class, particularly a panel of boys and girls who are leaders in the group and who themselves have fine attitudes. One interesting panel discussed, "Should girls pay their own way on dates?" Another discussed the question, "Should mothers work out of the home?" Another discussed the value of going to college. *Social relations, school conditions, and community* situations are sources of problems in which panel discussions may be effective with high-school groups as an introduction to more general discussion by the group.

ROLE-PLAYING IN GROUP DISCUSSION

Role-playing is used more and more frequently in home-economics classes, especially when family relationships or boy-girl relationships are being considered. Role-playing is the spontaneous acting out of a situation by two or more persons who show the emotional reactions of the people in the situation as they perceive them. The principle on which the use of the technique is based is that if you try to act out a person's behavior you begin to feel as the person feels when he acts that way. You then begin to understand that person's feelings and can put yourself in his place.

Home-economics teachers have often used role-playing without calling it by name and have used it correctly to help girls clarify and perhaps overcome their feelings about a situation. For example, when the members of a girls' class

have been planning to entertain their mothers at tea and the girls have expressed fear of making the introductions of their mothers to the teacher and classmates, some teachers have used role-playing. They have had the girls act out the situation. After having the class choose a girl to act as hostess, one to act as teacher, one or two to act as mothers, and one or two more to act as pupils, they have had these girls act out their various parts as they thought each would on the day of the tea. The rest of the class watched, then offered suggestions for improving the situation. Sometimes it was re-enacted using these suggested changes. If the group then analyzed how each person felt, why the hostess was ill at ease, how the mothers might feel, and so on, the group was using role-playing. In this example role-playing was used for the purpose of helping the class understand their feelings and overcome the fear they had expressed earlier.

Role-playing is not a skit. Instead it is spontaneous acting out of a situation. Most skits are small plays planned and rehearsed ahead of time. In skits the actors take a role delineated for them and dialogue written for them, which they recite, using the action designated for the various parts, as in a stage play. While skits also serve a purpose and are useful in teaching they do not accomplish the same results as role-playing. In the latter the action is spontaneous and unrehearsed, and reveals to *both* the actors and the audience the feelings involved in the behavior portrayed.

Appropriate use of role-playing. In discussion of problems in which the important consideration is the feelings involved in relationships, role-playing is especially useful. To start a discussion of some problem involved in relations of girls and boys with their friends, or in relations of pupils with parents or brothers and sisters, role-playing can be effectively used. If some of the group take the part of the persons involved and act out a specific situation, the whole class sees the same episode and thus has a common experi-

ence upon which to base its discussion. The role-playing helps the class see clearly the feelings and relations involved and can therefore stimulate active participation in the ensuing discussion.

In fact role-playing is discussed in this chapter because it requires follow-up discussion if it is to be effective. If no discussion follows role-playing, it becomes for the most part a period of entertainment, like viewing a play. Little if any understanding of the problem results.

How to use role-playing. If you as the teacher want to use role-playing effectively, how do you do it?

First, you use it when some understanding of feelings is at stake.

Second, you have the class set up the general nature of the situation in which the problem they are considering has arisen. You will not have them spend a great deal of time on this or have many details filled in. You may ask, "Does this occur in your home, in the halls at school, at the youth center, at the football game?" or whatever is appropriate for the problem. Having selected the location, a few rather hasty decisions about the general nature of the wearing apparel or other properties needed may be made.

Third, you have the class select the actors to take the parts or you call for volunteers. If, for example, the problem is how a boy talks to the parents of his girl friend when he goes to her house to take her on a date, actors for the boy, the girl's father, and her mother will be needed. Perhaps the group will want the girl in the scene, too.

Fourth, you and the class will decide what kind of people the actors are. This should not take long, but should just be sketched out. For instance, you might ask, "What kind of person is the father? the mother?" "Is the boy timid or self-confident?" It is only necessary to give the actors a hint as to the kind of people they are to try to portray. This is necessary, since they are to project themselves into these parts.

However, if the actors are to *feel* their parts they must be spontaneous and not be hampered by having to take a role too rigidly defined.

Fifth, you will suggest that the actors now prepare themselves and take their places before the group to dramatize the situation. "You might say, "Let's try it out now as you think the boy should act."

Sixth, when the dramatization has gone far enough to bring the problem out clearly, you should stop it. You may say, "Let's cut this right here and talk about the situation." The role-playing should not be carried on until it drags, nor to the point where too much is involved to be treated adequately in the discussion that follows.

The last step is the *discussion* of the action as it was seen by the group and felt by the actors. Some generalizations or conclusions may be agreed to by the class or suggestions for a different way of meeting the problem may call for repeating the role-playing with different action. You, the teacher, will have to decide which is needed to accomplish the objective you have in mind. Before you conclude the discussion, the group should arrive at some generalizations which can guide them in solving similar problems.

Pitfalls in using role-playing. There are some pitfalls in using role-playing. One is that the *actors* cannot adequately project themselves. If the situation is not real to them or if they are very self-conscious before the group, they often cannot be spontaneous in acting out the role they are to take. When this is true, role-playing fails.

Another pitfall is that the *group* does not get into the spirit of the role-playing. The pupils may giggle and make remarks about the actors or acting or just be indifferent. If this occurs they cannot discuss the situation after the scene is ended, and the role-playing has lost its point. This may particularly be true the first time the technique is used with a group. It can also occur if the problem is one about which

some pupils are very much embarrassed. They may show their embarrassment by giggling. If they cannot overcome this in a short time, you may be wise to drop the role-playing and try some other means for stimulating thought about the problem.

A final pitfall to be pointed out is overuse of role-playing. This overuse may be of two kinds, either too frequent use or inappropriate use.

It takes time to do role-playing—time to set up the situation; time to act out the scene; time to discuss the feelings and actions shown. Therefore, you will want to be sure that the results you may achieve are worth the time spent. The time required in itself suggests that role-playing should not be used too often. Furthermore, as in any method, interest may wane if it becomes an "old story."

It is inappropriate to use role-playing just to develop skill in performance. To do so is overuse of the technique. It is true that practice is needed to develop a skill, but this practice need not be acquired by role-playing. The purpose of role-playing is to develop understanding of feelings. Unless this understanding of feelings, as they are revealed in actions, is your objective, you may well use some other method. You will want to choose role-playing for its appropriate use.

PROBLEMS

1. Attend a discussion group or a class which is conducted on a discussion basis, observing both the leader and the class carefully. To what extent did the instructor use the techniques suggested in this chapter?

2. Evaluate the discussion of the above group according to the devices suggested in this chapter; then write out suggestions you might make to the leader to improve his leadership in another situation.

3. If any difficult situations arose during the discussion which you observed, analyze their causes and explain how such difficulties were handled by the leader. Plan how you would have handled these situations yourself.

4. If you are a teacher on the job, think over the last discussion

lesson which you led and decide to what extent you used the techniques suggested in this chapter.

5. Plan the statement of a number of problems that would result in an excellent panel discussion for a school assembly.

6. Plan a panel discussion, which will include pupils and parents, for a class studying money management.

7. Make a list of specific situations in which you believe role-playing would be an especially appropriate method of teaching. Choose the situations from these areas of homemaking: family recreation, family meals, consumer buying, social relations of boys and girls, child development, family relations, home care of the sick.

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~ CHAPTER IX ~

Guiding Pupil Development Through the Laboratory, Demonstration, Field Trip

THE LABORATORY

Since we learn to do by doing, experience in the laboratory is an important part of each pupil's total experience. Experience under supervision in the laboratory provides first steps in the development of manipulative and managerial skills. It also provides for the acquisition of needed information, the development of thinking, and the development of skill in observation.

Laboratory experiences are of three main types: productive, experimental, and observational. Laboratory experiences of the *productive* type, such as food preparation and clothing construction, develop manipulative ability, and ability in managing resources. An *experimental* type of laboratory experience may be used to determine or illustrate a principle, to find a satisfactory method of procedure, such as a way to remove spots from a dress. Laboratory experience of the *observational* type, such as the examination of fabrics or comparison of canned goods, is used to develop ability to recognize characteristics on sight or to draw conclusions about their usefulness. Whether the laboratory experience is to be productive, experimental, or observational,

the principles the teacher will use in her management will be the same.

A laboratory lesson has three parts. Each laboratory experience actually consists of three parts: a planning period, a doing period, and a summarization and evaluation period. In the first part the pupils and teacher together develop the plans for the whole experience. The second is the work period when the experimentation, production, or observation is carried out. The third part is the discussion period in which generalizations are drawn, products and method of work are evaluated, and evaluation of the total experience is made by pupils and teacher. Some laboratory experiences can be complete in one class period; but more often, especially if class periods are only forty-five or fifty minutes long, several will be needed.

A laboratory of the experimental type which is probably easily concluded in one class period can be illustrated by a lesson on spot removal. Suppose the pupils have found lipstick stains on the napkins after they have served a meal and want to know what to do about them. They might look up the methods of removal in books and bulletins. Then they might go to the laboratory and try different methods, first on spots the teacher has made on fabrics that will not be damaged by experimentation, and then on the napkins themselves. In this case, there would probably be time to evaluate results and draw conclusions in one class period.

Similarly a productive laboratory experience can sometimes be carried out in one class period. For example, in making an omelet to be included in a breakfast pupils are planning, the first part of the hour could be given to developing the procedure and working plan from those given in one or two texts. The next part of the hour will be given to the actual preparation, and the last part to judging the product and work plan used and to clearing the kitchens.

Laboratory experiences requiring more than one class pe-

riod are very common. To illustrate, perhaps the girls want to make jelly. Developing an understanding of the procedure needed to make good jelly and a work plan suited to the girls' use will probably take one day of planning by pupils and teacher. Another day, or possibly two, will be needed for making the jelly; a third or fourth will be needed for judging the finished product and the working methods they used.

An observational type of laboratory experience might need one or many days. If white rats are being fed on a certain diet, observation, cleaning the cages, feeding the rats, weighing them, and recording the results will need to be done daily for several weeks before conclusions can be drawn.

Whether the laboratory experience uses one class period or several, the three parts (planning, working, evaluating) should be thought of as one complete experience and should be planned as such.

Developing plans. In the first part of a laboratory lesson you will want to see that the goal for the lesson—usually an outgrowth of former lessons—and the procedure to be followed during the work period are clearly developed. This should be done, insofar as possible, by the pupils themselves.

If the lesson is of the experimental type, the goal will be the solution of some problem, such as determining which is the best baking-powder to use. If the lesson is of the production type in which ability is to be acquired, as in the making of muffins, the goal will include setting the amount and quality of work to be done, and the managerial ability to be developed. If the laboratory lesson is of the observation type, the goal will be something definite to look for. In any case this preliminary period, usually a discussion, helps the pupils clarify their goals for the activity period which is to follow.

Clarifying the plan of procedure must also be accom-

the principles the teacher will use in her management will be the same.

A laboratory lesson has three parts. Each laboratory experience actually consists of three parts: a planning period, a doing period, and a summarization and evaluation period. In the first part the pupils and teacher together develop the plans for the whole experience. The second is the work period when the experimentation, production, or observation is carried out. The third part is the discussion period in which generalizations are drawn, products and method of work are evaluated, and evaluation of the total experience is made by pupils and teacher. Some laboratory experiences can be complete in one class period; but more often, especially if class periods are only forty-five or fifty minutes long, several will be needed.

A laboratory of the experimental type which is probably easily concluded in one class period can be illustrated by a lesson on spot removal. Suppose the pupils have found lipstick stains on the napkins after they have served a meal and want to know what to do about them. They might look up the methods of removal in books and bulletins. Then they might go to the laboratory and try different methods, first on spots the teacher has made on fabrics that will not be damaged by experimentation, and then on the napkins themselves. In this case, there would probably be time to evaluate results and draw conclusions in one class period.

Similarly a productive laboratory experience can sometimes be carried out in one class period. For example, in making an omelet to be included in a breakfast pupils are planning, the first part of the hour could be given to developing the procedure and working plan from those given in one or two texts. The next part of the hour will be given to the actual preparation, and the last part to judging the product and work plan used and to clearing the kitchens.

Laboratory experiences requiring more than one class pe-

riod are very common. To illustrate, perhaps the girls want to make jelly. Developing an understanding of the procedure needed to make good jelly and a work plan suited to the girls' use will probably take one day of planning by pupils and teacher. Another day, or possibly two, will be needed for making the jelly; a third or fourth will be needed for judging the finished product and the working methods they used.

An observational type of laboratory experience might need one or many days. If white rats are being fed on a certain diet, observation, cleaning the cages, feeding the rats, weighing them, and recording the results will need to be done daily for several weeks before conclusions can be drawn.

Whether the laboratory experience uses one class period or several, the three parts (planning, working, evaluating) should be thought of as one complete experience and should be planned as such.

Developing plans. In the first part of a laboratory lesson you will want to see that the goal for the lesson—usually an outgrowth of former lessons—and the procedure to be followed during the work period are clearly developed. This should be done, insofar as possible, by the pupils themselves.

If the lesson is of the experimental type, the goal will be the solution of some problem, such as determining which is the best baking-powder to use. If the lesson is of the production type in which ability is to be acquired, as in the making of muffins, the goal will include setting the amount and quality of work to be done, and the managerial ability to be developed. If the laboratory lesson is of the observation type, the goal will be something definite to look for. In any case this preliminary period, usually a discussion, helps the pupils clarify their goals for the activity period which is to follow.

Clarifying the plan of procedure must also be accom-

plished in this discussion period. It is advisable to develop these plans of procedure through group thinking. A class can work out its own directions and make its own plans, indicating what problems are to be solved; what work is to be done; how time, equipment, and supplies are to be used; and how the group will all work together. These plans should be complete for the entire working period so that each member of the group will know just what to do and how to do it. Difficulties foreseen are frequently difficulties overcome. Such housekeeping duties as are not mere routine will be arranged for by the students at this time.

The activity period. During the second part or activity period, the teacher supervises the individual or group work. Whether this period be one of manipulative work, experimentation, or observation, the following statements hold true:

During this period the class works either individually or in small groups, according to the plans developed in the first part of the lesson.

The teacher supervises the activity of the groups, giving the ones most in need of assistance her attention first, but otherwise dividing her time among all members of the class as seems to her most advisable.

The good teacher will be alert to all that is going on in the classroom; she will have "eyes in the back of her head." She will not become so absorbed in helping one group or one girl that she is oblivious of the needs of others.

This is a period of individual teaching, and all the principles of learning and teaching apply. Each girl should be led to do her own thinking and to overcome her own difficulties. This may be accomplished by throwing her questions back to her for answer or by showing her where she can find help, but not by doing things for her.

This is a time for developing good working standards; therefore you will be watchful of such things as posture while sewing, the use of the thimble, methods of tasting

foods that are being prepared, the orderliness of work tables, sanitary standards, attention to safety, and so on. You have an opportunity at this time to stimulate the pupils to greater achievement by commenting on their achievement and challenging them to greater things.

Summary or evaluation period. The third part of the laboratory lesson will again be a discussion period or group study period, during which you and your class will summarize and evaluate the accomplishments of the other two sections of the lesson. If the activity period is of the productive type, any completed products or any progress that has been made should be judged during the third period, using some standard for evaluation—either one which was determined during the first discussion period or one which is set up at this time. It is important that this evaluation of work be done by the pupils and not alone by the teacher, for it offers another opportunity for them to develop judgment and thinking ability.

If the activity period has been one of experimentation, this third period is a time for summarizing the results, developing a clear statement of the principle involved, and applying this principle to other situations. If the activity period has been used for observation, a summary of the results of such observation will be needed. This third part of the laboratory lesson is largely a judgment period, a time for clarifying principles or generalizations involved; and so it is often a time for group discussion.

An illustration of a laboratory lesson requiring three days. Many teachers today organize their laboratory work in foods and nutrition on what may be called a meal-project basis. The class is divided into family groups of four to six members, and each family plans, prepares, serves, and criticizes its own meal. During the planning period on the first day some problem or objective is decided upon by the entire group. For instance the goal may be a low-cost meal, a guest meal, or one planned for quick preparation. After the objec-

tive has been decided upon, the group as a whole discusses the important items in the planning, preparation, and serving of the meal that lead toward the goal. For example, if the meal is to be one of extremely low cost, the group will discuss and study costs of foods, how variety may be secured, how nutrition requirements may be met as nearly as possible, what must be omitted from such a low-cost diet, and so on. The class will then resolve itself into family groups, each group planning its own meal. Plans are made for the menu, for cooking, for serving, for the order list, for sharing duties, and for all other problems which the girls can anticipate. During the activity period on the second day each group prepares its meal, serves it, and cleans up the kitchen. On the third day comes the summary and evaluation period. Each family discusses its meal and decides what was successful about it and what they need to improve next time. Each family then reports to the class. The entire group evaluates its achievement and may suggest ideas for future group work or home experience.

SUMMARY OF PROCEDURES IN THE LABORATORY LESSON

Part I. Planning Period (discussion)

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Pupils</i>
Leads in planning	Develop or review goals
Clarifies procedure, if needed	Develop standards for work
Observes to be sure each girl knows her part	Develop plans for work
	Plan for management of time
	Plan for management of group
	Plan work of each girl
	Plan routine work

Part II. Activity Period (individual or group work)

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Pupils</i>
Supervises work	Carry out plans
Guides each pupil toward the previously chosen goals for learning	Do routine work

Guides to good practices
 Guides to high standards
 Guides to routine work

Part III. Summarizing Period (*discussion or group study*)

Teacher

Pupils

Arranges for discussion
 Supervises study if needed
Points out relationship of present experience to past and future lessons

Judge products and work done
 Summarize observations
 Summarize findings of experimental work
 Clarify principles and generalizations
 Applies principles to other problems.

Laboratory management. Careful and definite planning provides the conditions for a successful lesson. Efficient and unobtrusive supervision will insure its successful completion. It is important that you plan *with the class* for routine work early in the school term and that you have these plans followed consistently. Such things as securing supplies, keeping the sewing tables clear, clearing up after work, caring for stoves and other equipment should become customary procedure. It is also important that you provide for the care of the equipment and supplies, for cleaning which is not done by the janitor, for care of flowers and other extra jobs; but do so in such a way that the pupils have the maximum opportunity to develop independence of action, co-operation, and ability to carry responsibility.

When possible, all laboratory work should be done individually, as it is in clothing construction when each girl has her own garment to work upon. She is assigned to a sewing-machine with one or more other girls and shares the cutting table with other members of the class; otherwise she works independently. In foods classes this is rarely possible, because of the expense of equipment and supplies involved;

so pupils usually work in pairs or in family groups. When a class is organized into a family group, the various home responsibilities may rotate within the group as the girls decide.

A study of the manner in which successful teachers manage laboratory work shows that they expect the class to start each lesson without delay. This is done so consistently that the class forms a habit of entering the room, immediately getting out the needed materials—such as aprons, art materials, or sewing equipment—and quickly preparing for the work of the hour. Three or four minutes are considered sufficient. These teachers so plan with the group that every girl in the class has a goal for the day and understands how and what is to be done and how to do it. They plan for the closing of the activities as carefully as for the beginning, and they make use of the blackboard for keeping plans and needed information before the group. They watch the time, and until girls are able to watch the time for themselves, quietly call the attention of the slow girls to the necessity for speeding up work. They see that supplies, materials, and equipment are arranged so that girls may use them without confusion, and they place all extra equipment where it is easily accessible. This may require several centers for supplies, with the lockers and storage cabinets so placed that congestion is avoided. These teachers arrange their laboratories as an efficient homemaker does her kitchen. They plan with the pupils to routinize as much of the work as possible and avoid using the time of the entire class for the administrative duties unless some educational value is to be secured by the participation of all in such duties. They eliminate wasteful visiting but allow freedom in the class work.

Class atmosphere. The home-economics workroom is an informal situation in which each girl has more opportunity to develop individually by taking responsibility for her own behavior than in a formal academic class. Activity, freedom from formal class restraint, opportunity to move about and

to talk are essential elements, which promote growth in the pupils but also offer temptation for talking and waste of time. Spontaneity is desirable; keen interest expressed in activity is a goal; a certain amount of noise is unavoidable; but when a class becomes noisy, talks loudly about subjects other than the work at hand, or forms idle conversational groups, the situation is unfavorable to learning. Freedom for work and learning is desirable; *freedom for play and idleness* is inexcusable during a class period.

Time management. Planning for the use of time is frequently the Waterloo of the inexperienced teacher, for she has not yet learned how long it takes a group to work out problems and how much longer it frequently takes a group to perform some operation than for a person working alone to do the same task. You will first need to realize that the class must be dismissed at the end of the hour. If the work is not finished—if perhaps the dishes are not washed, they must be left and cared for after school, during another class, or whenever you can find time to do them. None of these alternatives is desirable. It behooves you to control your time so that the class is through and ready to go when the bell rings.

You also need to realize that in this class period all of the time should be used to advantage, leaving as few unprofitable moments as possible. Planning to finish promptly in one case and not to have left-over time in another will be one of your big problems in management.

Class periods are usually forty-five, sixty, or ninety minutes in length. Management problems differ in each case. In the ninety-minute period it is frequently possible to complete all three divisions of the laboratory lesson in one day. There will be time for preparatory discussion, for a work period, for a summary at the end, and for orderly care of the room. Of course, more can be accomplished than in the sixty-minute period; yet much time can be wasted unless a

careful plan co-operatively worked out fills the hour for every one. This may prove difficult because of the variation in individual rates of work. Therefore, you will so plan with each girl that she is challenged to her best but not challenged beyond her ability. Planning for and utilizing the ninety minutes without wasting one of them is the challenge of this period to the teacher and her class.

In the sixty-minute laboratory period the challenge is to plan so that the class finishes during the hour. Every minute must count. It will frequently be necessary to use two or more sixty-minute periods for a complete laboratory project—one period for planning and for organizing the group for work, one or more for the work period, and a period or part of one for evaluation or summary.

With the forty-five-minute period practically all laboratory projects will need several class meetings. If you have periods of this duration, your problem will be to guide your class to plan for several days at one time. All plans must be made with extreme care, and all routine work must be truly routine.

Visual aids in laboratory lessons. In a laboratory the pupils are working with things which they see and feel so there are always visual materials at hand. In addition there are many visual aids which you, the teacher, can use to make your teaching more effective. Pictures, charts, and graphs used on the bulletin board, placed on the flannel board, or at times passed about the class will often make some point clear and vivid. Charts, showing the cuts of meat, or those showing how to thread a sewing machine, are useful aids because they hold the idea before your class after you have ceased to talk about it. Graphs can help them visualize an idea such as the difference in vitamin content of several foods.

Exhibits of articles such as those showing the steps in making a bound buttonhole are very useful aids, since your

pupils can examine them repeatedly if they forget what to do next.

Projected aids, such as films, film strips, or slides may help to make a process clear. Projected aids have a special advantage in that all of the pupils can see the process at the same time. Film strips and slides have an added advantage over films because you can hold a certain picture on the screen as long as you want to in order to examine it carefully. They also cost less than films; therefore a school can more easily build up a library and have film strips at hand to use whenever and as often as needed.

Evidences of success of a laboratory lesson. A laboratory lesson may be considered successful in proportion to the degree in which:

1. The activity period progresses smoothly, showing that planning was carefully done.
2. Pupils work independently and co-operatively with a purpose.
3. Pupils work with little waste of time.
4. Responsibility for routine work is carried independently.
5. Interest and attention to work is good throughout the period.
6. Class evaluation of the entire activity is thoughtful and judicial.
7. The production work, if any, is successfully done.
8. The desired pupil development occurs.

THE DEMONSTRATION

A demonstration is frequently used to provide information, to create interest, or to develop standards of work, by showing how a process is done. Since most of us are visual-minded, it helps to understand how to do something if we see it done. Demonstrations may vary in scope from the very

short informal one used in showing a small group how to fill a bobbin, to the long formal demonstration given to a large audience in cooking schools. They may be given by one or more of the pupils, by the teacher alone, or by the teacher and pupil working together.

For whatever purpose used or by whom given, certain factors will characterize a good demonstration though it may be only a few minutes in length. If it is long and important enough to be a lesson of itself, it will consist of three parts: first, a short preparatory period during which its need and purpose will be clarified; second, the demonstration itself; and third, a follow-up period for practice of the process demonstrated. When the demonstration is given merely for the purpose of awakening interest, this last period is often omitted.

Preparatory period. A good demonstration will gain the attention and interest of the group from the beginning and will set forth a need for the information which is to be given. If you were to demonstrate ways to fix fruits for salad, for example, you would endeavor immediately to point out that there are several ways to do this and that some ways are quicker than others or produce more attractive salads. If the class is soon to prepare a supper including a salad, it will feel the need for the demonstration.

The demonstration itself. A good demonstration of the rather long, somewhat formal, type will have the following characteristics:

1. It will show or develop the steps in the process accurately, clearly, definitely, and in consecutive order. If these are listed on the blackboard as they are being shown, the class will be able to follow them better.

2. Explanation of the steps in the process should accompany the doing of them. The demonstrator talks while working, asking questions that will stimulate the group to think through the process with her, leading the observers to sug-

gest the steps that are to follow, giving suggestions for the use of the process.

3. The subject-matter given and the language used should be selected according to the learning level of the group so that both will be clearly understood by every person.

4. The operations demonstrated should be shown with materials similar in kind and in size to those the pupils will use. Some teachers have been known to show how to put on a collar, for instance, by using a doll garment. This means that the class must make a translation of size before applying the processes to their own work. The making of a buttonhole is sometimes demonstrated with a very large slit which can be seen by every one in a large class; then the teacher wonders why the girls cut such large buttonholes in their garments. A fabric used in a demonstration should be of the same kind, and size, sometimes even of the same color as that which will later be used by the class.

Occasionally in a clothing-construction class, teachers demonstrate a process on the garment of one of the students, thus doing the work for that one girl. Though this is using a normal-sized garment, it also means that this one girl does not get an opportunity to practice and gain some ability in the process unless the operation needs to be repeated on her garment. Unfortunately, girls have been known to compete with one another to have their garment chosen for the demonstration so that the teacher will do part of their work for them. In most cases it is more effective if the teacher uses a real garment which she is making at the same time as the students. In demonstrating food preparation or meal service, the equipment and utensils used should be similar to those the pupils will be working with in the laboratory or in their homes.

5. In a good demonstration the process should not only be shown in its normal size and on suitable materials but it should also be shown in the same relative position as that in

which the class will perform it afterward. It is easy to reach over a desk and show a girl how to make a stitch, but in so doing the movements will be just backward for her. You really should stand beside her if it is an individual demonstration; if it is for a group, you should stand so that right and left are in the same relative positions for you and your class, if this is at all possible.

6. Only one process (or very closely related processes) should be demonstrated at one time. Each demonstration should have one important idea or method to teach and one only. It is better not to introduce a variation until the fundamental process is thoroughly understood. You may be tempted to try to save time by showing several processes at the beginning of the hour, especially if several girls may need these various ones soon. For instance, you may be tempted to show your class at the beginning of the hour how to modify a pattern, how to cut out the material, and how to pin the pieces together, but this is too much for an average high-school class to grasp all at once. The same is true in food demonstration. It is a mistake to show too many variations at one time. If you do, time has been lost, rather than saved, because at least part of the demonstration will need to be repeated later for some of the pupils.

7. The demonstration should always be clearly seen by all of the group. This may seem to conflict with paragraph 4, as frequently the size of the article being worked upon—for example, a buttonhole—is such that the whole group cannot see it at once. When this is the case, you may demonstrate to small groups. The class should be gathered about in an orderly but informal way (seated on chairs and *not* on tables) so that all can see and ask questions easily. It is important for you to see that the light is adequate but does not glare and that there is no strong light behind you for the observers to face. The demonstrator and her actions should be the center of the picture; therefore, an unobtrusive back-

a buttonhole or the dressing of a chicken. In no case should the practice work be the making of a model to be mounted or kept as such, although a practice piece, on which some ability is developed and on which each girl makes sure that she understands the operations, may often be necessary. Many demonstrations will need to be followed by careful and correct repetition to bring about the desired manipulative ability. Home experience also may be needed to bring this ability up to the desired proficiency.

Before your teaching is complete, you will also develop the judgment of the class in the use of the process demonstrated. Suppose that you have given a demonstration on putting in a slide fastener, during which you have developed with the class the standards for a good placket, which should be inconspicuous, durable, easily opened, flat, and so on. Before the members of the class make plackets on their own garments, several plackets, some good and some poor, should be examined and criticized. If several of these are on actual garments worn by the girls, the results will be better than if they are merely samples. The process of judging different ones will fix standards definitely, and will also indicate the quality of the placket which they are to make. You should lose no opportunity for allowing each pupil to evaluate articles, processes, or results of work following a demonstration, for in formulating personal opinion and comparing it with that of the group, the individual develops good judgment.

When give a class demonstration? Sometimes a short demonstration will be needed in the middle of the class hour. You must decide whether to interrupt the class and show every one how a certain process is performed, or to show only the one or two who need to know at the moment. If you interrupt the class, each pupil has his train of thought suddenly ended, his interest in work broken. Ordinarily the management of the class will be better if the demonstration

can be given at the beginning of the hour. If you are alert, you will realize that on a certain day several pupils will need to know, for example, how to press seams. At the beginning of the hour, before attention and interest are centered on other work, you will be ready to show this operation to the group which needs it and thus give information when it is needed and in relation to its use.

Examination of real articles, charts, or pictures, or study of printed instructions followed by working out the process for one's self may often be more challenging and provide greater opportunity for development of independence of thinking than will be true of either a pupil-given or a teacher-given demonstration. The teacher will have to decide whether better results will be obtained by presenting a demonstration or by having the pupils figure out the process for themselves.

The demonstrator. The demonstrator must have confidence in herself. She *must* herself be able to follow through a given process both deftly and accurately. If you are doubtful of your own ability, practice beforehand until you acquire skill. This applies particularly to the inexperienced teacher, who may seldom have shown others how to do things she has done herself. Self-confidence and an informal manner stimulate participation by the group; poise is an advantage; good English is expected; neatness and attractiveness of appearance are a matter of course.

Supplementary visual aids in a demonstration. The demonstration is itself a visual aid to learning, but often supplementary visual materials, over and above those used in the demonstration itself, are of value. Charts, pictures, items written on the chalkboard, samples of various kinds, and finished products similar to the article being made will aid the class in understanding the explanation. Writing on the chalkboard the order of steps in a process as you demonstrate them helps the class to keep the sequence clearly in

mind. Charts and pictures can sometimes make a point more quickly and clearly than it can be made by words. There is a saying that a picture is worth a thousand words.

Many samples of materials will help the class to realize that the same process being demonstrated can be applied to a wide variety of materials. Displays of products other than those being made will help the pupils to see that by variations of the process they can make a variety of articles. Frequently, when you are giving a demonstration to arouse interest, an attractive display of materials or articles that may be used in a manner similar to the one you are showing will intensify the interest. For example, if you accompany a demonstration of making a slipcover with a display of samples of suitable fabrics for slipcovers and colored pictures of furniture attractively covered, you may arouse greater interest than you would by merely showing how to make one slipcover. Also a display of samples of many stuffed toys and patterns for making them, used as a supplement to a demonstration, will stimulate more interest in making toys than showing how to make one alone would ever do.

Evidences of success. The demonstration may be considered a success:

1. If the interest of the group is voluntary and continuous.
2. If only a few questions are asked concerning the method itself but many concerning the application and use of the process.
3. If the follow-up practice work is successful with little supervision on the part of the teacher.
4. If only a few pupils need individual help.

THE FIELD TRIP

"Study real things rather than read about them" is a principle that will lead the teacher who follows it to many ex-

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objective; there will be a goal selected by the pupils; plans will be carefully laid; the trip will be taken according to these plans; and the results of the trip will be evaluated. The field trip then, like a laboratory lesson of the observation type, will consist of three parts: a discussion period for planning the trip, the trip itself, and a second discussion period summarizing and evaluating what was seen. All may occur on one day or may occupy two or three class periods.

In the first period the purpose of the trip will be determined; questions will be raised which the observations made on the trip will answer, and suggestions will be offered concerning what is to be observed. Careful plans for going and returning will be made, together with a plan for securing and using any materials which may be needed. All the plans for managing the resources of the class and the situations should be well worked out. It is most important that during this period the class should consider those behavior and social customs that should be observed during the trip, such as etiquette in another person's home, ethics of shopping, courtesies due to salespeople, and the value of quiet manners and of poise. Field trips provide good opportunities to teach social customs and to help to develop the personal traits of courtesy, co-operation, and dependability.

The trip itself, like the activity period in the laboratory lesson, is the time for carrying out the plans that were previously made, and its success will be determined in a large measure by the carefulness and the completeness of those plans. You as the teacher will study your group and guide them by suggestions and questions to recognize the things which they should observe carefully, mingle with them on the trip, and be very observant yourself.

The discussion period following the trip will be used to summarize what was seen, to make comparisons, to draw conclusions about what was learned and the value of the total experience to the group in answering the questions

asked before the trip, and to raise questions for further study.

Evidences of success. The trip has been successful if its purpose has been accomplished. For example, if a group of girls visited a home kitchen in the community to study its arrangement for efficiency, the purpose of the trip will have been accomplished if the class can tell how the kitchen was arranged and point out the advantages of that arrangement, if it can and does ask intelligent questions about the possibility of other arrangements, if it shows some judgment concerning what was seen, and if each girl shows better judgment in planning her kitchen.

Other evidences of success will be that the girls are orderly and well behaved; there is little wasted time; the girls have many relevant things to talk about after the trip; the group is enthusiastic during the summarizing discussion period.

PROBLEMS

1. Observe a demonstration lesson or think of one you have seen recently. How good was it according to the standards given here?

2. If you are a teacher, evaluate, according to the criteria in this chapter, the last demonstration lesson which you taught.

3. List some demonstrations you might give to arouse the interest of your class in some unit or activity rather than to help them understand some process.

4. Miss Wilson, in describing her foods class, said that one of her girls "is very good natured but slower than the others," consequently the other girls leave extra pans, stove, sink, and so forth, for her to clean. As a result she is always the last one to leave the room. Analyze what you think may be the underlying causes of such a situation and suggest a plan by which this teacher may overcome the difficulty.

5. A student teacher once asked this question. How would you answer it? "If a girl has difficulty mixing the paint for a chair which she is refinishing, should I mix it for her?"

6. A teacher seemed to have trouble in getting her class in food preparation through on time, so she frequently had one class clean up after the class from the preceding period. What do you see as the far-reaching results if such a custom continues?

7. Suppose that in a class of eighteen girls in clothing construction, sixteen of the girls have the material and patterns ready for cutting

out pajamas. You have ten sewing tables, about twenty-seven by sixty inches in size, at which two girls usually work. The period is sixty minutes in length. How will you teach this lesson and manage your group so that the cutting of the material may be done as quickly and correctly as possible?

8. Plan the laboratory management in a situation in which the class is working on diversified projects—one group is preparing a meal, three girls are making dresses, one girl is mending a sweater, two girls are cleaning the cabinets, and two girls are sorting and filing bulletins and magazine clippings.

9. A teacher took her class to visit a furniture store, after discussing with them what they were to look for and how they should go. She was very much disappointed to have them be noisy and boisterous on the street, especially since the principal, hearing about it later, suggested that perhaps she had better not take any more field trips that year. How could she have prevented such a situation, and what do you think she might have done afterward to relieve the situation and help to prevent a recurrence of it if future trips were permitted?

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~ CHAPTER X ~

Audio-Visual Aids to Teaching

A vast amount of audio-visual material is at the command of the home-economics teacher. All the objects in the home-making rooms and articles that may be borrowed from homes and stores in the community can serve as effective *visual aids in teaching*. *Films, film strips, and slides* are available from colleges, government agencies, and other educational sources as well as from commercial sources. Charts, posters, pictures, samples of products, and leaflets are prepared by a large number of commercial firms and associations. Individual companies and groups of companies associated together to promote their products have educational departments, many of them employing college-trained home economists to prepare educational materials for distribution to teachers as well as to the consuming public. Audio-aids such as records, tape recordings, and both sound films and film strips with accompanying records are now available also.

A teacher's problems in relation to visual or auditory aids are: to select the right kind for a particular lesson; to have the selected material on hand when it is needed; and to use it to the best advantage. The teacher, therefore, needs to have in mind criteria to guide her in selecting and using audio-visual aids, if she is to choose and use them effectively.

In general audio-visual aids should be:

- a. Chosen to aid in achieving some definite goal.
- b. Needed to create interest, develop attitudes or understandings.
- c. Used to *aid* learning, not for their own sake.
- d. Used so well that they accomplish the purpose for which they were selected.

Visual aids must also be large enough that they can be easily seen by the group. With large groups it may be necessary to use only large objects, or pictures that can be projected with the opaque projector or converted into slides or films.

Some discussion of four kinds of audio-visual aids and some suggested criteria which apply especially to the selection and use of each kind are included in this chapter. The four kinds to be discussed here are illustrative materials, bulletin boards, projected aids, and sound recordings of various types.

ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIALS

The term *illustrative materials* implies that, whatever these materials are, they will illustrate some point, fact, or principle that one is attempting to teach. As used in this section it refers to all visual materials used in the class room, with the exception of bulletin boards, on which illustrative materials are often posted, and projected aids. These will be considered separately.

For purposes of discussion, illustrative materials have been divided into three main groups: (1) *Actual objects of all types*—from one placemat to a table set for a meal; from flowers in a bowl to a well-arranged dining room; from a zipper to whole costumes; (2) *Charts, posters and pictures*—either large ones for all the class to see or small ones for each pupil; (3) *Samples of all types*—swatches of colored fabrics, pieces of drapery materials, food samples, or samples of paints and varnishes.

Actual objects as visual aids. Whenever it is at all possible to use actual objects to illustrate some fact, principle, or process, this should be done because the real thing is much more readily understood than a picture or chart. Home-economics teachers commonly use actual food, clothing, or small equipment to illustrate ideas. This use of actual objects is important in good teaching.

Of course there are times when the real thing is not available or is too heavy to be moved to the place where it is needed or is too expensive for class use. In such cases the class can sometimes be taken to the objects by means of a field trip, or one may have to resort to pictures.

Models may at times have to be substituted for the objects or used in addition to them. For example, if a teacher has several classes all putting zippers in skirts, it will be impractical for her to have a skirt for each class. She may have to use a model as nearly like a part of a skirt as she can, although putting a zipper into a skirt of the type the girls are making will illustrate the process better. It will be better still to use a series of models showing the steps in the process, in addition to the skirt or model on which the process was demonstrated. Then the girls can examine the models whenever they need to do so. Such models should always be life-size. Many people cannot visualize space relations easily and cannot transfer an idea from a miniature or an enlargement to the normal size they are using.

The criteria of especial importance in the selection of actual objects as illustrative materials appear to be:

1. The object should show clearly, without confusion with too many other ideas, the point it is to illustrate.
2. The objects should be similar to those with which the pupils have some experience, unless it is being used to create interest in something new.

Charts, posters, and pictures. Charts, posters, and pictures are often used for one of five purposes, namely:

1. To show the relation of parts to the whole, as in charts showing cuts from a side of beef or pork.

2. To show the inside of objects that cannot well be taken apart, as in charts showing the working parts of a refrigerator.

3. To show enlargements of small parts that cannot be readily seen, as in posters showing the layers in a grain of wheat with their respective food values.

4. To show finished products, as in pictures of slip covers, table settings, or relish plates.

5. To stimulate to some kind of action, as in posters showing good posture or safety rules.

There are some advantages in using charts, posters, and pictures as visual aids. Sometimes they can be kept before the group for repeated examination more readily than real articles which may be perishable. They are relatively easy to store and have at hand when needed. They may substitute for real things that are not available. It should be remembered that it is difficult for many pupils to visualize the real things unless they are life size. Those charts or pictures that are enlargements should therefore be used sparingly. Pictures are especially helpful in showing styles of dress, new designs in fashion, room arrangements, table settings, and new ways to serve foods. Because it may be nearly impossible to obtain the articles themselves or entirely too expensive in time, money, or both to prepare them, pictures may need to suffice. The color in many pictures found in magazines and books today increases their effectiveness as illustrative material. If they are well-mounted their effectiveness is often further increased.

If the pictures are to mean anything to the pupils they must not show things so completely out of their experience that they cannot appreciate them. This is especially true of pictures of house furnishings, kitchen arrangements, cooking equipment, and fancy foods.

In selecting illustrative materials included in this group there are certain special criteria to be observed:

1. They should be attractive in format and in color, if color is used.

2. They should show clearly the main idea they are to illustrate.

3. Charts and posters should be accurate, unbiased, and without serious omissions of important facts.

Samples. There are many times when it becomes necessary to use samples, but these samples are usually portions of the real things with which the class is dealing. They may be limited only in size or quantity from being the thing itself. For example, it may not be possible to get several rugs, of even the throw-size, but it may be entirely possible to have samples of many rug materials. Similarly, when the class needs to see fabrics which they might choose for dresses, samples will show the variety of materials from which they may choose. Of course, the class may be taken on a buying trip and see the actual fabrics, but a field trip may not be feasible; samples may be the next best illustrative material to use. Such samples can usually be stored easily and can be replaced frequently so that they are kept up to date.

In foods, samples are merely small quantities of the actual food and may at times be all that is required to visualize some idea. Many foods are perishable, so samples may save expense. If the samples are of manufactured products it is important that comparable products from several firms be shown, in order not to advertise one product or brand more than another. As criteria for selection and use, the points especially pertinent to samples seem to be:

1. Samples should be large enough to show adequately the character and quality of the original article.

2. Samples should be chosen from materials the class may be able to afford.

3. Samples should be obtained from several stores that carry the kind of article sampled.

4. If samples of manufactured products of any kind are being used, comparable products from a number of firms should be shown at the same time.

5. Enough samples should be provided so that time of the group is not wasted when examining them.

PROJECTED VISUAL AIDS

Projected visual aids have become so widely used in all areas and at all levels of education that many school systems are accumulating film libraries. Consequently teachers need to be able to use projection machines. This need has been recognized by one state in its new requirements for teacher certification. These requirements specify that each secondary school teacher shall have, as part of his professional education, specific training in the use of projection equipment, and projected visual aids.

Films, film strips, and slides are widely available. In each state the U.S. Department of Agriculture has a depository of films at the land-grant college. Many state universities and other colleges have visual instruction departments or bureaus and maintain film libraries. Any one in the state may borrow from the film library, usually at a slight rental cost plus transportation. Commercial sources also provide films that can be borrowed; some sell film slides to schools at a small cost. A joint committee of home economists from three national organizations in co-operation with commercial producers has prepared cuttings from movies shown in theaters. These short films, showing episodes from family life, are available for use in the study of child development and family relationships. Since projected aids are available from many sources, a homemaking teacher may need to choose carefully from those she might obtain.

A teacher's use of films is often complicated, not only by having to select them without an opportunity to preview them, but also by the fact that she may be asked to order her films in the spring for the following year and give the dates when she wishes to use them. It is well-nigh impossible to synchronize the arrival of a borrowed film with the time when it is needed in teaching. Popular films have to be ordered well in advance but a teacher who uses co-operative planning with her classes cannot predict many months ahead when a certain film will be needed. As a result many films are poorly used or are not used when they would be of most value in the learning process.

Certain criteria for selection of projected visual aids for homemaking classes are given here. The films, film strips, or slides chosen should:

1. Contribute to one or more objectives selected for the group.
2. Show the material as effectively or more so than it could otherwise be shown in the class or through field trips.
3. Show the material or situation in sufficient detail to accomplish its purpose.
4. Be free from extraneous material unless that material furthers some objective of the course or school.
5. Be free from excessive or objectionable advertising.
6. Be suitable in material and presentation to the understanding, experience, and interest of the age or grade level for which used.
7. Be up-to-date and accurate in material and presentation.
8. *Stimulate attitudes believed to be desirable, if attitudes are involved.*
9. Be of proper length to hold interest of group.
10. Be mechanically well executed, clear, and capable of being reproduced on a screen in a size that can be seen by the whole group for which used.

11. Should use sound effects that are relevant and contribute to better understanding of the film or slide, if accompanied by sound.

12. Be reasonable in expense in relation to their accomplishment.

Pictures and many other types of graphic representations, including drawings and small charts or photographs which are too small for class use, can be projected with either the opaque or overhead projector and thus become useful aids in teaching. Projected pictures have several advantages. A large group can see the same picture at the same time. A picture can be retained on the screen as long as it is wanted and the pupils can ask any questions about it that they may care to. As a result misunderstandings can be corrected. The details of the enlarged picture can be readily studied. Since the room is darkened, attention to the projected pictures is likely to be better than when mounted pictures are being shown and other distractions can occur.

There are disadvantages, of course, in using this kind of visual aid. Adequate darkening of the room may be difficult to achieve. Also the opaque projector, though one of the early kinds of projection equipment, is not as universally available as are projectors for filmstrips and slides. Pictures must be clear, be uncluttered by detail, and must have contrast in light and dark if they are to be clear when projected. Also the pictures can neither be too small or too large to be held in place in the machine.

Some guides for the use of projected visual aids may also be helpful. The following seem especially pertinent:

1. Films, slides or projected pictures may be used for one or more of the following purposes:

- a. To awaken or strengthen interest
- b. To develop broader understanding
- c. To awaken desirable attitudes
- d. To supply information needed for problem-solving

- e. To develop the first stages of either manipulative or judgment ability
- f. To provide a common experience as a basis for discussion

2. Unless the visual material is to be used to start interest, adequate preparation for viewing the film needs to be made with the class.

3. The necessary preparation of the group for viewing the material will vary but will be much like that needed before a field trip.

4. If it is at all possible, it is wise for the teacher to pre-view films and slides before use, to select carefully portions to be used and to discover points at which explanations, special reshowing, or other means of giving emphasis are needed to accomplish the objectives for which the projected materials are being shown.

5. Adequate preparation should be made for seating, lighting, and projection so that the effect of the film, slides or projected pictures will not be spoiled by poor visibility, or much class time be wasted by these preparations.

6. A plan should be made for the amount and type of discussion that is to accompany or follow the use of the visual materials.

7. At some point in the follow-up procedure, there should be an evaluation of the experience of seeing the visual materials in relation to the objectives toward which the group is working.

8. In consideration for other people, films and slides should be returned promptly and in good condition to the source from which they were obtained.

BULLETIN BOARDS

When visiting schools over the country one is impressed with various uses which homemaking teachers make of bul-

letin boards. In some cases they are used for posting work schedules, notices, or announcements of F.H.A. or N.H.A. activities. In other cases they seem to be centers of interest in the room—something to look at. In many other situations they are used to supplement class teaching.

Before discussing the various purposes for which a bulletin board may be used it should be pointed out that a bulletin board is not effective unless it is arranged well and changed frequently. *The Teacher's Letter* once expressed this in a very forceful way.¹

Bulletin boards can help teach, but only if they're healthy. Here are four types of "sick" bulletin boards often seen in classrooms.

The superannuated board. It's dying from old age—ancient clippings, torn pictures, faded photographs. Needs fresh materials.

The myopic board. It's set up in a dark corner, can't see, can't be seen. Needs to be flooded either with electricity or sunlight.

The kleptomaniac board. Picks up all stray paper and announcements. Needs a pupil committee to police it.

The congested board. Has so much to show and tell it fails to show or tell any one thing clearly. Needs order and organization.

Educational purposes served. When a teacher uses a bulletin board for posting work schedules and notices, she is using it as a *visual aid to classroom management*. This is a necessary use in any homemaking laboratory, but when a large bulletin board is used for that purpose, its effectiveness as an aid to class teaching is either nullified or reduced. Many teachers prefer to have two bulletin boards, one of which is used only for notices. This seems to be a desirable arrangement and an inexpensive one.

When a teacher makes the bulletin board a center of interest she is using it as a *visual aid to maintaining class morale*. One teacher did this when Christmas holidays were approaching. She placed a large Santa Claus of paper on the

¹ Arthur C. Crofts Publications, *The Teacher's Letter*, Feb. 2, 1952, Sept. 20, 1952.

center of the bulletin board. From the pack on his back real packages attractively wrapped seemed to fall toward other parts of the board. A teacher in another school pinned a beautiful textile on the board, leaving it up for a few days. In each of these cases the bulletin board was used as an interest center in the room with no other motive.

Often the bulletin board is used as a *visual aid to class teaching*. When so used it may serve one of three purposes: (1) to supplement class teaching; (2) to arouse interest in a new subject or activity; (3) to teach a lesson by itself. Illustrations of bulletin board arrangements will clarify the meaning of these three purposes.

Suppose a class is studying color. A color chart may be posted on the bulletin board to which the class may refer during discussion. Or a "color wheel" may be arranged of papers or pieces of textile materials. One teacher used many squares of cheese cloth which had been dyed various hues in different tints and shades by the class. These squares were bunched and arranged to represent a huge rose which illustrated the color wheel. The bulletin board thus became a visual aid which supplemented the class work in developing understanding and appreciation of color. In the last illustration it also became a center of interest in the room.

Consider a similar illustration in the area of clothing construction. Suppose a class is ready to alter patterns preparatory to making blouses. In this situation teachers frequently demonstrate how to enlarge a blouse pattern, then put parts of the changed pattern on the bulletin board with strips of colored paper indicating the changes. The bulletin board thus supplements the demonstrations and discussions which have been part of the class work by keeping before the class the process which was demonstrated.

The second purpose of a bulletin board is to arouse interest in a subject or activity which the teacher thinks would

be worth while to the class. One teacher used the board for such a purpose when she arranged on it a number of attractive but inexpensive and easily made place mats at a time when she hoped the class would decide to make luncheon sets needed in the laboratory. Another teacher pinned samples of new spring fabrics on the bulletin board two weeks before the class planned to start making spring dresses. The first teacher aroused interest in an entirely new project. The second teacher started the girls thinking about a project which had been tentatively planned some time before. Both teachers used the bulletin board as a visual aid for developing interest in something to come later.

A third purpose of a bulletin board is to teach a lesson by itself. One teacher influenced her girls to improve their hair arrangement by this device. The girls in this particular class had adopted a faddish "hair-do" which was so extreme that it was not only unbecoming but ludicrous. Understanding adolescent girls as she did, she decided that talking about it in class would be of little value. So she cut pictures of popular movie actresses out of periodicals, taking care to select those with simple, attractive hair arrangements. These she placed on the bulletin board artistically with the name of the actress under each picture. She placed at the top the simple title, "Attractive Hair Dress." Girls came into class, stopped, studied it and gathered around it during their free moments. The teacher said nothing but in a few days she noticed a decided change in the way her girls were arranging their hair. Here the bulletin board, as a visual aid, taught a lesson.

Principles of selection and arrangement. For whichever purpose a bulletin board is used, the items on it must be so selected and arranged that pupils look at them and study them. Otherwise the bulletin board is not a visual aid to teaching. Several principles can be stated which will serve as guides.

Bulletin board arrangements should:

1. Consist of items which are suited to the purpose for which the arrangement is made.
2. Apply the principles of poster making: attract attention, hold attention, illustrate one idea at a time.
3. Apply the principles of art: proportion, balance, rhythm, center of interest, color harmony, color emphasis.
4. Vary in kind and be changed often.
5. Make use of real objects whenever possible rather than pictures of those objects.

Pupil responsibility for the bulletin board. Bulletin boards should be made learning experiences for pupils by having them take responsibility for the arrangements, either individually or in groups. Some teachers take class time early in the year to study how a bulletin board might be arranged effectively and attractively. While doing this, principles of art and of poster making are studied. The class is then divided into groups which take turns arranging the board. The teacher, of course, needs to have on file or in the storage cabinets materials which the girls might use so that all of the responsibility of finding suitable materials will not fall on them.

TELEVISION

Interesting developments are occurring in the field of television which show that it may become an important audio-visual aid for homemaking classes. At the present writing one educational station is telecasting lessons in science and elementary art for school use. A homemakers' program is also given on certain days each week. If schools have television receivers it is possible to arrange for a class to view a certain program. With suitable preparation of the class for viewing and suitable follow-up afterwards, as is needed with movies, these television programs can be supplements to the usual classroom work.

Experimental work has shown that technical subject matter can be taught effectively and that demonstrations are well received and are effective on television. Programs of children's stories and discussions of family problems have been given successfully. The latter may be good starting points for discussion with the experts from the station providing source material for a class through these programs.

There is a tremendous appeal in television, partly because of its novelty and partly because it, like sound films, provides action accompanied by sound, but even more because the viewer has the feeling that he is immediately present while the action is taking place. Many schools are buying receivers because of this appeal. But until more schools have them, a teacher may only be able to have pupils view a program in some home and then follow up that experience with an appropriate laboratory or discussion session. If television stations produce kinescopes of their programs and arrange to loan them as sound films are now loaned from film libraries, educational television may be available to more schools. A teacher will need to be watchful to note the possibilities of supplementing her class work with this latest audio-visual aid.

AUDITORY AIDS

As schools purchase tape recorders an additional aid to teaching is becoming more commonly available. Tape recordings have many uses. A tape recording of an F.H.A. meeting can be made, then played back for the officers to analyze the effectiveness with which they conducted that meeting. This actual record which they may hear will help them to realize much more vividly than they otherwise could the strengths and weaknesses of their performance. The recording or parts of it can be repeated as often as desired so that the officers can hear it as often as they feel a need to. Later in the year another recording of a business meeting can be

made with which the early record may be compared to note the improvement.

The tape recording can be kept for future use or can be quickly erased by the machine so that the tape can be used again. Because of this feature the tape record is not too expensive to be used for many situations. Records of children's conversations during play in the home could be taken and brought into the classroom for study. Panel discussions of relationships between boys and girls or parent and child could be recorded and saved for use in some other class. *With a tape recorder a particularly good discussion or the ideas of some person who was available only on one occasion could be saved and played back for future classes to hear.* The ingenious teacher will no doubt find many ways to use such recordings in class work.

Disc records are also available for purchase to accompany film slides. By means of these records that can be played on a record player, a good explanation of the slides can add materially to their value. Records of children's songs can be used and stories as they are told to children can be played in class and studied to learn how best to tell stories.

Perhaps it may be well to repeat that the auditory aids, like visual aids, are not substitutes for teaching but are aids in effective learning. They should be chosen with this thought in mind.

PROBLEMS

1. Make a plan for collecting illustrative material which you will find useful in guiding social activities of F.H.A. or N.H.A.
2. Using the criteria given in this chapter, evaluate, as teaching aids, posters and charts distributed by several commercial firms for educational use.
3. Make a plan for acquiring and filing essential models for use in teaching beginning clothing construction.
4. Find out what films, film strips and slides are available in your state for use in homemaking classes. Investigate conditions under which they may be borrowed.

5. Plan a bulletin board arrangement for each of these purposes: (a) to aid in classroom management; (b) to be a center of interest; (c) to aid in teaching a lesson.

6. Investigate various machines for making sound recordings. Consider their cost in relation to use and decide upon the conditions under which you would be justified in recommending that a school purchase such equipment.

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~ CHAPTER XI ~

Home Experiences

If one purpose of the school is to help children do better those things which they will do anyway, one purpose of the homemaking curriculum is to help girls and boys be more effective members in the homes in which they live. This means they are aided in becoming increasingly able to carry satisfactorily whatever responsibilities are expected of them at home, and to assume additional or different ones as the home situation changes. The school does not attempt to control home living, and the homemaking teacher does not attempt to control the home life of boys and girls in her classes, but she should attempt to utilize or "tie to" the home life or experience of pupils and promote more and better experience.

All girls and boys carry some responsibility at home. They may do few or none of the housekeeping activities, but they cannot escape participation in the relational aspects of family living. All relations as well as activities are part of home experience. Some of these are utilized in home-economics classes and some are not. Some of them are educative and some of them may be mis-educative.

Home experience may be utilized by the teacher as educative activity in two ways. She may draw illustrations from home experiences of pupils to illustrate principles which need to be understood, or she may stimulate and direct in-

creased experience in the home. For illustration: A class may be studying how to arrange working equipment in a kitchen so that work may be done as easily and as quickly as possible. Girls may describe how their home kitchens are arranged; they may draw plans of them and study the steps taken to prepare meals. Here the teacher is drawing problems out of home experience and using home experiences to give meaning to the problems for discussion and study in the classroom. If members of the class then go home, try to rearrange their pots and pans, tables, cupboards, and supplies, and through experimentation work out an improved arrangement, increased home experience of a constructive nature has been stimulated.

Value of home experience. It is obvious that the school situation cannot provide all of the elements found in a home, even if the school-rooms and equipment are as nearly like that in the home as they can be made for a large group. Arrangements may be made at school for each girl to plan and serve a lunch to a group of boys and girls, but such home conditions as a family's likes and dislikes for certain foods or brother's unavoidable delay in coming to the meal at the usual time, cannot be provided for each individual girl. Children may be brought to school for the girls to observe and guide in their play, but it is impossible to supply for each girl a child whose relations to her will resemble those she would have with her small brother in the evenings at home. It is evident that *the school cannot provide the human element of family life*. Opportunity is also limited in the classroom by expense and by the necessity for having many pupils work together, so that no one girl or boy has opportunity to carry as much responsibility as would be possible at home.

Some interests—such as interest in care of the hair—and some abilities—such as ability to set a table for an ordinary meal—can certainly be developed through class work alone,

but interest may be made more lasting and all abilities may be improved through satisfying home experience.

Many abilities, either manipulative, managerial, or creative, can be brought to the desired level only when further practice at home enlarges upon the class work. This has been shown repeatedly by such instances as the following: During a home-decoration unit in a ninth-grade class, one girl seemed to lack artistic ability and to be but passively interested. When various arrangements of bedrooms were shown, she did not seem to see the difference that made one plan better than another until one day a grouping of furniture, containing a spinning-wheel, was shown to illustrate a center of interest. The girl said, "Why, I have a spinning-wheel behind the door in my room. Could I make it a center of interest?" In a day or two she came to school with the report that her mother had said that she could fix up her room any way she wished, if she did not spend over three dollars. She arranged her room, made her spinning-wheel the prominent feature in it, painted some furniture to add color and harmonize with the different kinds of furniture. She developed keen interest and the ability to criticize furniture and picture arrangements which the teacher had been unable to develop before the incident.

Ideals may be established in class, but unless they correspond with the standards of home living, they may soon disappear or cause a girl to feel a sense of guilt. For example, a girl may develop a desire for a neat and attractively arranged dressing table, but if her dressing table at home is shared with a very careless sister who makes it impossible to maintain her desired standard, she may soon lose her ideal or feel ashamed of her room. She may even quarrel with her sister. Emotional elements of family life are of necessity unavailable in a school pseudo-family group; yet these elements are an important part of learning since we learn as an entire organism. Using the home as a laboratory for homemaking

education is, therefore, very important, if that education is to be as complete as it should be.

A daughter's home activities are guided by her mother and father. You are not responsible for them. When, however, you plan to co-ordinate school and home experience you assume the responsibility of sharing guidance with the parents, so that you can help the girl to meet situations with success and to develop good standards and desirable attitudes. Continued practice of *poor* technique, whether in washing dishes, using the sewing-machine, or playing the piano, will not develop *good* technique. Lack of advice on how to meet problems may cause discouragement or the development of very undesirable attitudes. For example, the girl who undertakes to make a dress for herself and, without adequate help, succeeds in getting it together, only to discover that it does not fit and that both sleeves are for the same arm, may develop both a real dislike for sewing and a lack of confidence in herself. Assistance, guidance, and encouragement from an older, more experienced person, are needed to insure desirable results, both in material things and in attitudes. These may be supplied by the parents or other members of the family, by a neighbor or friend, or by the teacher. If you encourage home experience, you are responsible for seeing that it is well guided either by yourself, by the parents, or by all of you working together.

Types of home experience. Two terms used in connection with home experience need to be defined; namely, *home practice* and *home projects*. Home practice is a home experience of small scope, often only part of a home task, and may be a repetition of school activities. The term *home project* is employed for planned-for experience which is carried on at home and which fulfils all of the requirements of a project as interpreted by Kilpatrick: namely, that it be a complete act, purposed, planned, executed, and judged by the pupil.

A home project is a home experience complete within itself, which affords opportunity for the development of increased abilities, including improved ability to work and live with people. It is a *planned experience*, carried to completion. The interpretations of the terms *home practice* and *home project*, as used in connection with the best type of each, may be better clarified by the comparisons given below.

Practice Type

1. Is only a part of a complete unit of home activity, e.g., preparing one dish for a meal, such as the dessert or salad; cleaning silver; making one's bed daily; dusting the living room.
2. May be only manipulative but may also involve some managerial ability, as when a girl puts her little brother or sister to bed.
3. May be urged or assigned by the teacher and still be effective but is better if done voluntarily.
4. Does not require extensive planning beforehand, may even be spontaneous.
5. Usually requires a comparatively short time.
6. Requires interest, some knowledge, some judgment, and

Project Type

1. Is a complete normal unit of home work or an enterprise as the homemaker meets it, no part of which can be omitted, e.g., the complete meal including planning the menu, buying, preparing, and serving the food; cleaning up, caring for left-overs, and getting the meal eaten with satisfaction and harmony by the family.
2. Involves and necessitates managerial ability which challenges the girl. (It may or may not require manipulative ability: for example, a self-improvement project, such as better use of time, may not involve manipulative ability.)
3. Is chosen by the girl who purposes to do it.
4. Demands planning.
5. Involves rather a long time for both planning and doing—enough so that goals are reached.
6. Requires interest, considerable knowledge, a good deal

perhaps a little creative thinking.

7. May be judged or may not be, but is likely to be judged roughly or as a whole, as for example, "The results were good."

of judgment, and much creative thinking.

7. Involves careful evaluation by the girl in terms of her own improvement.

Variations in educational value of home experiences. No arbitrary statement can be made concerning the educational value of *any one home experience to any individual girl*. Home practice may be of great value to one girl, or of little to another. A few examples will show how experiences vary in worth according to the age and experience of the student.

For Ruth Ellen, who has done practically nothing at home, to undertake to make her own bed every morning for a time may be very worth while. If she learns to make a bed and along with that improves in ability to manage her time and herself, and especially if she develops the habit of making her bed so that she goes right on doing so as one of her regular duties, she has assuredly developed desirable interest, and some self-direction, with a feeling of personal responsibility for her share of the work. Her experience may have high educational value for her.

For Marie, however, who regularly makes all of the beds, to undertake to make her bed every morning as a home experience would be of little value at all, since it involves no addition to and no change in what she is already doing. But if she decides to teach a younger sister how to make beds, while she herself cares for the rest of the rooms, she may have chosen a valuable project. Or if, instead, she works out an improved time schedule for herself to save some of the time previously used in bed-making, she may improve in ability to plan her work and to work with others. She would no doubt show development in interest and responsibility as well. If she does gain these things her home experience will have educational value for her.

If still another girl, who has a young sister and a semi-invalid mother, and who has for some years been carrying the major responsibility for her home, should choose a project like the above, it would have little challenge for her, but a study of the management of the entire home and ways of improving it might have.

So though routine jobs may be very worth while to the inexperienced girl, even complicated tasks involving considerable management may have little value in further developing the capabilities of the girl with much home experience. The chart on page 219 shows how home experience may vary in educational value for an average ninth-grade girl.

HOME PROJECTS

Characteristics of effective home projects. Organized and planned home experience of the scope of home projects will be effective as an addition to school experiences in proportion as:

1. It is undertaken because the pupil is interested in it and wants to do it.

2. It grows out of some problem or concern the boy or girl has.

3. It fits into the life situation in the pupil's family, meets some need, and has a favorable effect on the family living.

4. It has definite goals which the pupil sees clearly because he has chosen them.

5. It is realistic; can be carried out within the limits of time, ability, and other resources of the pupil, the family, and the teacher who is directing it.

6. It is of enough difficulty to challenge the ability of the pupil and provide for the acquisition of some new ability or understanding, but does not frustrate.

7. It is planned; as a rule does not just happen.

ILLUSTRATION OF RANGE OF EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF HOME EXPERIENCE

Mis-education in Value

Caring for child under compulsion, when the girl wishes to read a novel.

Compelled to wash dishes as a daily job under unattractive conditions

Having to beg for money, perhaps being refused with a resulting temptation for dishonesty

Preparing home suppers according to menus and standards of service determined at school but not desired by parents

Some Educational Value

Caring for child in the evening when parents are gone; child in bed

Washing dishes under comfortable conditions, in order to help mother

Spending money given upon request, or an allowance for school needs only

Preparing home suppers with mother's guidance

Great Educational Value

Taking care of a child for entire day

Planning and experimenting with the clearing up after meals to reduce time and energy used

Having an allowance for all personal needs

Preparing all home meals for a week or more, with guidance of mother and teacher

8. The plan is carried out with suitable adaptations, if conditions demand change.

9. It is guided during all its stages by teacher, parents, or both, but only as much as is needed.

10. It results in satisfaction for the pupil and usually for the family as well.

The above characteristics of home projects set a high standard. It will be impossible to attain this standard at all times with every pupil, although such attainment is the ideal toward which pupil and teacher strive.

Criteria for educational value of a home project. The educational value of a home project depends upon the pupil's improvement (1) in ability to plan for what he or she wishes to accomplish; (2) in ability to work with people as well as with materials; (3) in attitude toward home life and interest in it; and (4) in the case of some projects, in ability to carry on manipulative activities in the home. Gain in manipulative and planning ability can be measured. Increase in ability to work with people and things can also be measured to some extent, though not so easily or so well. At present the permanency and degree of interest in home life can only be very subjectively estimated.

Let us analyze the value of a project chosen by a tenth-grade girl. The family of six lived on a large but not well-improved farm. The girl had never seemed interested in her home before, but following a study of room decoration she chose to finish up an attic room as a bedroom for herself and her sister. So eager was she to do it that her parents allowed her to try it, though they had never before co-operated in any home improvement idea. They told her she could spend what was absolutely necessary and helped her put on the wall board and build in a window for light and air. With her father's help, she made a chair from a salt barrel, a dressing table from orange crates, and a desk from another crate. She purchased a second-hand dresser, a mir-

ror, and two single beds. With some help from her mother in hanging the wall-paper and sandpapering the furniture, she finally had a very cozy room with blue enameled furniture, dotted Swiss curtains at the window and around the dressing table, and a blue cretonne-covered chair and stool. The final touch was a braided rug of blue and white rags. The girl was happy in her new room, and the mother and father were proud both of the room and of the daughter's efforts. When she finished this project, she began making plans for refurnishing the living-room during the summer. Her completed project was of great educative value to her. The pride of her family in the finished room and the fact that she immediately started planning to refurnish the living-room gave evidence of the increased interest and improved attitudes on the part of both herself and her family. This project met all of the criteria given above and therefore was a project of high educational value to this girl. But smaller projects may be of high value also depending on the needs of the pupil.

Summer projects. In many schools the homemaking teacher is employed beyond the regular school year. In this case many home projects are carried on by the girls in the summer months, when they are free from other school responsibilities.

Interviews with many high-school girls and teachers have shown that girls who have done projects during the school year and also in the summer tend to prefer summer projects. Teachers also prefer the summer program. Comparison of the kind of projects undertaken shows that girls frequently carry more projects and those of greater scope during the summer than during the winter. Summer projects may be and usually are larger in scope than those undertaken during the regular school year. Instead of making one dress a girl may complete an entire wardrobe, remodeling some garments, making others new. She may preserve a large quan-

tity of food in considerable variety. She may assume responsibility for the care of milk and cream, care of the home, preparation of meals, or redecoration and refurnishing of her bedroom.

Group projects as well as individual projects can be carried on in the summer to give pupils additional experiences. These may be part of the program of the Future Homemakers of America or New Homemakers of America. Sometimes girls can surplus food for the school lunch, or care for a school flower or vegetable garden. Group projects for school or community improvement can give the pupils good experience as group members as well as skill in the activity being carried out.

Reports from various schools show other group projects such as:

1. Remodeling and decorating the principal's office
2. Keeping the school library open
3. Mending the library books
4. Making holders for silverware in the home economics department
5. Holding open house
6. Holding an exhibit of handicraft
7. Sponsoring a Hobby Show
8. Caring for children on a community playground
9. Managing a play school for small children one day a week
10. Having a bake sale
11. Making garments for Red Cross

Certain it is that summer experiences should be planned as part of the total homemaking program, and planned carefully by both teacher and pupil. The planning you, the teacher, will do to guide particular projects probably will not differ much from that for similar projects carried on during the regular school year, but you will find quite different plans essential for your time because you are not under an hour and bell schedule. You are free to plan your entire time for supervisory visits, club meetings, conferences, individual help, and so on.

Initiating a home project program. Before introducing home experiences to a new class, you will need to do a certain amount of ground work in order to have a receptive attitude at home and in the community as a whole. It will be invaluable to make favorable contacts with women and men in the community, by taking part in community affairs, and by meeting as many people as you can. Here your own social experience will be an asset. Meet as many mothers as you can and call on them at home. On that first visit establish friendly social relationships. Explain the interest you as a teacher have in the pupils' home activities. Recognize the mother's important part in her child's development, and explain to her the value of home experience. Then talk with the mother about the experience which she thinks her boy or girl needs.

Having thus paved the way in the community, you will help the students to see the need for home projects. This can best be done during the planning period at the beginning of the year when you and the pupils are making general plans for the total homemaking program. Here it is necessary that you yourself show interest and enthusiasm for home practice and home projects and stimulate interest in home activities. During this planning period you can show the girls possibilities in the things in which they are interested, discuss the responsibilities of mother at home, and have the girls list the activities (1) which they now do at home, (2) which they like to do, (3) which they would like to be able to do. The next step of course is to check those goals which can be achieved at school and those which can best be reached through home experience. Each pupil can then list the experiences which she would like to plan for herself for the year.

An attitude on your part that home experience is valuable, and is part of life, will give importance to home activities, and an attitude that home projects are a matter of course

will help pupils to approach them in the same manner. If it has been a custom in past years for girls studying homemaking in your particular school to carry home projects and if these were successful and interesting, it will be easy to get your present class to undertake them. As a certain teacher, who had directed them for several years, said, "Why, I don't have any trouble with home experiences! The girls just expect to engage in home experiences and come into the class looking forward to their projects. Sometimes they have them all selected."

If pupils come into the class looking upon home projects as part of the home-economics course, interest is already present for you to build on. If, however, the pupils come in not expecting or wanting home projects, you will have to work first for interest. If the class work is made so interesting that the pupils want to do at home many of the things which they do at school and if the interest in problems of the home is maintained at a high level in the class, you may reasonably expect to find your pupils assuming more and more responsibility at home. This means that you have stimulated spontaneous home activity which you can organize into home projects. If class work is uninteresting, the opposite of this is true.

PROBLEMS

1. Suppose you are going into a town of 2,000 people to teach homemaking in a consolidated high school. Half of the girls in your class come from rural homes within ten miles of town, the others from the town itself. You will have sixty minutes a day for your homemaking work. You believe you will need home experience to supplement your classwork if you are to reach the objectives which you have set up. Assuming that you have made a general study of the community, what additional information will you want before undertaking to guide home experiences?

2. Suggest two plans which might be used to meet and secure the co-operation of the mothers for home project work in the community mentioned above. There is a Parent-Teacher Association which a few mothers of the high-school girls attend, and Friday is the day when

many country mothers come to town. Assume (a) that you will be provided with no transportation, (b) that you will be allowed \$100 a year for transportation.

3. At the end of her breakfast unit, Teacher A discussed home projects with her class and urged each girl to prepare six breakfasts and report their results to her for their home project. Teacher B, throughout her breakfast unit, had encouraged her girls to do similar work at home. She posted on the bulletin-board reports of home projects previously carried by girls in her classes. At the end of the unit she had the girls summarize gains they had made and secured the consent of each to a proposal that all should prepare six breakfasts at home, writing up the plan and report of their work in a booklet of some sort. Discuss the good and poor points of each procedure. Suggest improvements.

4. Following a unit on clothing construction in which a class had made pajamas, six of the fourteen girls began to make some garment for themselves or other members of their families. One girl was caring for her clothes. One girl wanted to rearrange her room and refinish a chair for it. Two girls were interested in making dress bags and fixing up their closets. The other four who had done much sewing did not want to sew at home but were a little interested in caring for a child, planting a garden, or improving the condition of hair and hands. Should the teacher attempt to interest these last seven in some project in the field of clothing, either selection, construction, or care? Give reasons for your answer.

5. A girl in a ninth-grade class came into the classroom one morning with a package and told the teacher that she wanted to show her something she had completed as a home project. She opened the package disclosing a small child's dress of gingham trimmed with fitted linings such as she had learned to make at school on her pajamas. The teacher remarked that the girl had not planned such a project with her; the girl replied that she had planned it with her mother instead. How should the teacher meet this situation?

6. Assume you are employed for twelve months in a rural consolidated high school and your pupils carry home projects during the summer months. What might you do during the school year to prepare the girls, parents, and yourself for summer projects?

REFERENCES

For references, see following chapter.

~ CHAPTER XII ~

Guiding Home Experiences of the Project Type

You will agree, no doubt, that home experience of the project type needs to be guided if it is to be effective in homemaking education. The question of *when to guide* the home project can be simply and directly answered. Beginning with the choice of the project and ending with its evaluation, at every stage of its progress, whenever help is needed—but only when it is needed—will you guide your students' projects. The question of *how much to guide* is more troublesome. Some teachers, eager for good projects, help too much, suggest too many details, so that the resulting project is more a child of the teacher's brain than of the girl's. True, the finished piece of work may be better, but the girl is no more independent than before. In the same manner, a mother has been known to complete a garment or to help with a meal so that the girl really does little. In either case the girl is being helped too much.

You alone cannot give adequate supervision, but if a happy relation exists between daughter and parents, and satisfactory co-operation is established between you and the parents, you can expect the right kind and amount of guidance. You may give most of your help at school; the mother, and at times the father, will advise the girl at home. In such a project as packing school lunches, most of your help will be

in encouraging the choice of the project, in advising on the original plan, and in evaluating the results. The mother's part will consist largely in allowing the girl to do her own work and in offering advice and encouragement when she meets difficulties. In other types of projects you yourself may give more guidance. To illustrate: a girl whose mother does not sew well may choose to make a rather difficult dress. You will need to guide carefully the construction as well as the original planning.

Whether you supervise many experiences of the home practice type depends largely upon your time and upon whether or not you expect by means of them to interest your girls in more extensive experiences of the scope of home projects. Much valuable home experience takes place without your knowledge, much less your guidance.

GUIDING THE SELECTION OF HOME PROJECTS

The conditions under which a girl is living while going to school have a big influence upon the kind of home experience she may undertake. Often girls live several miles from town, riding to and from school in a bus, starting out early in the morning and not reaching home until nearly dark. Therefore they have little time during the week for home work, and projects may have to be planned for Saturdays and Sundays, for holidays, or for the summer. If a girl rooms in town, her home projects may have to be limited to something she can do while living away from home, such as taking care of her room, improving her posture, or managing her money. Each girl has a different home environment which you will need to understand when you and your girls discuss a program of home projects.

Since any home activity carried on by a pupil may affect the comfort and happiness of the family, or be affected by its economic condition, the co-operation of the parents

should be secured before a project is undertaken. Probably one of the reasons that so many garment-making projects have been carried on has been that these interfered little with the life in the home and were therefore easy to accomplish. The importance of family co-operation may be seen from the following illustration.

Mary Jane undertook for her project the planning and preparation of Sunday dinners for her family, which included her father, a brother twenty years old, a sister of eighteen, two brothers of ten and eight, and her mother. She secured consent to do this without her mother really understanding why she was doing it or the value it was expected to have for her. The teacher, however, assumed this consent to be an understanding one. Mary Jane had not done much at home before this and was rather irresponsible, although she had given the teacher the impression that she frequently helped her mother. The family usually went to a nearby town to Sunday school and church. Mary Jane had planned to prepare part of her meal before Sunday school, but she was so slow that every one of the family was ready and waiting for her when it was time to go. They were late getting started to town with consequent irritation between herself and the rest of the family. When all came home hungry for dinner, which the mother usually served promptly, they had to wait for an hour past their usual mealtime. Big brother had a date and rushed off without his dessert. Father had a meeting and also found it necessary to leave without finishing his dinner, though he was more sympathetic with Mary Jane's efforts than was her brother. Mother thought it just another whim of Mary Jane or of her teacher, and said, "Well, that is enough of that. I'll get dinner myself the next time." If the complete understanding and co-operation of this mother had been obtained beforehand, most of these difficulties might have been avoided. She would have understood the situation and realized how she might have helped

Mary Jane to avoid some of her mistakes. She might also have explained the situation to the rest of the family.

Steps in guiding the selection. The teacher who successfully guides the selection of home projects takes five steps:

First, she helps pupils set goals for their own growth. This probably has been done while they are planning for the year.

Second, she helps them realize the value of home experience in achieving those goals.

Third, she helps each girl decide what particular home experiences may help her to reach her goals.

Fourth, she encourages the girl to discuss with her parents the project in which she is most interested and which will best fit into the home situation.

Fifth, she leads the girl to decide upon the project that she wishes to undertake.

In the selection of specific projects personal conferences are essential. You may use your conference time to follow up each student's thinking, to encourage definiteness of decision, to encourage the attainable, to locate difficulties she is facing, to indicate possible procedures, to suggest references that will stimulate thinking, and to help each girl choose her project according to her own needs. While doing all this, you need at times to be a sympathetic listener, at others to be full of questions to bring out what may be done and what problems may be met. No matter how difficult it seems to be to find time for these personal conferences, your efforts will be repaid by better projects which means better growth and development of the pupils. (A more detailed discussion of conferences is given later. See page 322.)

Suggestions for home projects. Possible projects may be suggested by many situations; but they are more likely to be suitable when they are suggested to a girl by some personal interest or home need. Making a dress because she wants it is an example of a project chosen from personal interest; preparing the evening meal because the mother is

working is typical of one chosen as the result of a home need. Projects may develop from responsibilities that a girl has to carry anyway but in which she wishes to improve. Caring for her bedroom or buying the groceries and supplies in town for the rural home are some of the usual duties out of which good projects may grow.

Many projects will result from class work, for example, those in the refinishing of furniture or rearrangement of a room. Others grow from social experiences that may motivate work in the improvement of personality. A community activity in which the girl takes part, such as a church supper or a program for mothers, may result in a desire on her part for a project of a very different type, like undertaking the care of the children who must come with the mothers to the parent-teacher association meetings.

Helping a group to list possible experiences that would aid them in developing toward certain goals often opens up possibilities for specific projects. From the following list, you may find suggestions to make to your girls.

HOME PROJECTS OF GIRLS

Child care

Take complete responsibility for my little sister after school while mother works

Arrange a suitable place for children's toys

Make play equipment from wooden boxes and scrap lumber

Help organize in church a nursery school and help care for the children during services

Keep a small child who is recovering from chicken pox occupied and happy

Teach my three-year-old sister to dress herself.

Clothing

Make a gored skirt for my little sister from the scraps of my dress

Plan and make my Easter outfit

Make sun suits for my two-year-old brother

Dress dolls for Christmas baskets

Knit a sweater for myself

Plan, buy material, and make spring suit

Reline mother's spring coat

Make a tailored suit out of daddy's old suit

Make over my dresses so they will be in style this spring

Community relations

Give a party for my Sunday School class

Look over our old clothes and make over those that I can for a poor family in our neighborhood

Family relations

Be a better member of my family

Teach my brother to dance

Have a recreation evening for my family once a week

Help my little sister learn to read

Stop quarreling with my brother

Prepare refreshments for mother's club when it meets at our house again

Read to my grandmother each evening

Make mother a guest at supper

Foods and nutrition

Help my family to use more milk in their diet by preparing a variety of dishes containing milk

Add variety to our breakfasts

Help my family to eat more vegetables by preparing them in new ways or more attractively

Do the Saturday baking for mother

Learn to make several kinds of desserts in our new electric refrigerator

Prepare and pack father's lunch with foods that he will like and that will be good for him

Prepare supper for a week, working for speed, efficiency, and variation in menus

Help mother so that she can go to church on Sunday

Make cookies for Christmas presents

Freeze our vegetables and fruits from our garden this summer

Pack my own school lunch for two months

Home care of the sick

Make a back rest for my grandmother as she must spend most of her time in bed

Take care of all the "hurts" of my little brother for the next few weeks

Home furnishings

Redecorate my own room

Make a dressing table and bench from orange crates

Make a table from our old sewing machine

Clean and paint our kitchen

Rearrange our living-room furniture so that we can all use the radio and see the television easily, yet all will be comfortable

Make a slip cover for our davenport
Make a braided rug for my room

Management

Keep an account of our grocery bills for a few months
Keep clothing accounts and plan a clothing budget for my family
Assume the entire management of our house for two weeks while mother is away
Make a cleaning closet
Do the daily and weekly cleaning of the house
Rearrange our kitchen cabinets so work will be easier

Personality and grooming

Improve my table manners
Overcome bashfulness and be more friendly with boys
Make myself a good conversationalist
Improve my posture
Care for my own hair in order to save beauty parlor bills

Storage

Arrange a closet so that it will hold all of my things and I can find them easily
Make a cabinet for my clothes
Make a storage cabinet in our bathroom

Yard and garden

Make our back yard into a playground for my little brother and sister
Plan, plant, and care for our vegetable garden
Make our yard beautiful

Standards for selection. One girl who sews well may present you a suggestion that she make a simple blouse for her project, whereas another who has done very little sewing may wish to make a winter coat. Neither one has truly evaluated her own ability, and both need to be helped to do so. Their judgment may be improved by having them check their tentative choices against questions, which the class may have worked out, similar to those below.

QUESTIONS TO HELP IN THE SELECTION OF A PROJECT

1. Do I want to do this?
2. Will it develop ability which I need?
3. Can I do it: that is, will mother approve?
4. Is it hard enough for me, but not too hard?
5. Does it have something to plan or manage?
6. Is it something that needs to be done at home?

7. Can I do it in the time I have?
8. Does it give me a chance to learn something I need to learn?

GUIDING THE PLANNING OF HOME PROJECTS

With the proposed project well chosen to fit the pupil's situation and needs, you will then need to guide the planning to whatever degree such guidance is needed. With ninth-grade girls this often presents a real problem, for when their enthusiasm to undertake some project is aroused, they are eager to start at once, and the need of a careful plan must be "sold" to them. This is your first step. This *"selling"* will not be difficult if plans have been made by the class for all its work, and if the idea has been established that *good work can only follow careful planning.*

Just as you, in planning a lesson, think it through carefully and write down some things, so you will need to guide a girl, who is planning her home experience, to think through her plan carefully and write down whatever is necessary. *This is your second step.* How much you encourage her to write will depend upon the type of experience proposed, the ability of the girl to think it through without much writing, her ability to remember the details of her plan while she works, and the amount of conference time you can give her. A written plan insures greater definiteness. The important thing, however, is not the form, but the completeness and clearness with which the undertaking has been thought through. Whether written or verbal, the plan should show that:

1. The goals are clear, specific, and simple.
2. The girl recognizes whether the experience is within her ability.
3. A careful analysis has been made of the things which will have to be done.
4. The work to be done and the time needed have been thought through.

5. Ways to get help, if needed, have been planned for.
6. Consideration has been given to the home conditions under which the work is to be done.
7. Records will be kept, if they are needed.
8. The mother has approved the plan.

A girl's project plan. Here is the plan of a ninth-grade girl as she prepared it after conferences with her teacher.

PLAN OF PROJECT: RENOVATING MY BEDROOM

The location of my bedroom

My room is off the dining room. It is a rather small room and has two windows to the west. The dresser is sitting against the south wall, and the head of my bed is to the east wall. The chest of drawers is sitting between the two windows.

Why I chose this for my home project

1. My room needs cleaning.
2. My bed and dresser are scratched and need varnishing.
3. It will teach me to take care of my room instead of always depending on my Aunt to do it.
4. My curtains are soiled.
5. I think I will enjoy it.

Aim or Purpose

1. I want to learn to keep my room neat.
2. I want to plan the colors for my room and pick out my new curtains.
3. I intend to clean out my dresser drawers and keep them clean by placing small boxes in my drawers for my curlers; keep my handkerchiefs in a neat pile and place my shoes in the drawers neatly.
4. I will paint my walls a light cream. They are already cream, but I like that color. I know how to put on the paint, but I will need some help because the ceiling is too high for me to reach.
5. I am going to varnish my bed, dresser, and floor, I know how to varnish, but I will need some help from my Aunt.
6. My Aunt is going to buy me some new pink curtains and a spread. My floor is going to be varnished, and I am going to have some new shag rugs. Also, some suitable pictures for a girl's room.

GUIDING THE EXECUTION OF HOME PROJECTS

Supervising the progress of home projects will be a joint effort of teacher and parents, if the spirit of working together for pupil development has been secured. The mother and sometimes the father will be able to give help day by day and hour by hour as the project progresses; the teacher may follow progress by informal talks with the girl or boy, by more formal oral or written reports in class, by examination of products, by talks with the mother, and by home visits.

Informal reports may be made before or after school, at odd moments during the day or during a conference period; a more formal report, if desired, may be made during class time. Projects, such as various phases of personal improvement, family-relationships projects, or health projects, may be guided effectively by means of these informal reports, but other kinds seem to call for a different type of supervision.

Talks with the mother over the phone and with the student at school prove satisfactory in some cases and may be just as effective as personal visits to the home. The ingenious teacher will try out various possible means to find which gives the best results for each case. All suggestions, whether offered while reports are being given or during pupil conferences or talks with the mother, should be definite and show evidence that you have carefully analyzed each pupil's individual needs. Mere suggestions to "go ahead" or to "keep on working at it" are neither constructive nor helpful when a pupil is meeting real difficulties.

If the project is one in which articles are produced that can be brought to school, such as garments, household articles, and even cooked food, you can sometimes follow progress by examining the products themselves. Your regular way of supervising some projects, especially in clothing construction, may be to have the actual work submitted to you at stated times; but you should also watch for opportunities

to give guidance from time to time in other kinds of work as your pupils reveal their problems and voluntarily seek your aid. A girl is asking for this kind of supervision when she brings her cans of paint to you for help in mixing them to get the right color for the dresser she is refinishing at home. A boy who brings one of the biscuits he has baked the evening before asking, "What is the matter with my biscuit?" can be given the same kind of guidance.

Guiding projects by home visits. Teachers who get good results with home projects believe that a certain amount of home visiting is needed, since it may be advisable to see the quality of work being done or the conditions under which a boy or girl is working. A young teacher especially should visit homes where productive projects are under way in order to increase her understanding of the home and be more nearly sure of her advice.

The time for making such visits will be governed partly by the type of project. If a room is being refurnished, the call will have to be made at a time when the girl is at work and in need of advice. The visit may as a rule be brief. If the girl is preparing supper, there is only a short time for a supervisory visit, since if the teacher goes to the home early, say four o'clock the girl probably has not begun her work, and if she waits until six o'clock, she may find the family at the supper table and her visit may seem an intrusion. That leaves only about half an hour for making a satisfactory visit, and even then there is danger of interrupting and confusing the girl. One teacher describes her visit to guide meal projects thus: "It would seem that I walk right in, turn around, and walk right out again; but in that short time I see a lot, commend the girl, and give a suggestion if needed."

The number of visits to each project will vary. Some teachers set a goal of one visit to each project and, if only one is made, consider it wiser to visit during the planning

period than during the execution of the project. At times a visit to help get the work started and another to assist in evaluating the results may seem advisable.

Although it is not necessary, you may prefer to be invited to make your first visit. The invitation may sometimes be obtained by a subtle suggestion, such as a certain teacher made to a girl who had been rather on the defensive in her attitude. In a chat before school one morning she encouraged the pupil to tell about her project and how she was getting started. The girl gave her results up to date, and the teacher remarked, "Oh, that is fine, Bernadine. I should like to have been there to see how well you did that." Bernadine replied, "Oh, won't you come? I am going to be working on it again tomorrow night, if you want to come." The teacher took quick advantage of the opportunity. A good type of co-operation exists, of course, when a girl spontaneously offers an invitation.

Guiding the records. How many and what kind of records and reports of home project work a pupil shall make are *controversial questions*. Some homemaking teachers believe in complete and rather detailed records, others in the briefest possible ones; some expect long written plans, others very short ones; some require a final report in a complete story form, others expect only a thoughtful written evaluation. It is generally conceded that girls like to "do home projects" but do not want to write reports of them. After all, that is a human trait. We all enjoy the creative activity and the feeling of accomplishment, but are very likely to rebel if required to write out a laborious report of that accomplishment. Witness the universal growling over reports by teachers, supervisors, and workers in any field. Then, "Why ask a high-school girl to write a report of her project?" say many teachers. The answer is that a well-organized written plan, record, and report encourage organized thinking, and promote clear and definite evaluation. They seem to give

importance to a project, and afford some means for the teacher to evaluate and guide progress.

It is also generally conceded that we all think better and more clearly when we attempt to put the results of our thinking in written form. Hence a pupil will make a better plan if the important points are written, and the results can be judged more carefully if the evaluation is written. A written plan and evaluation as the core of a project report can therefore be justified. Certainly in the written report no more details should be included than are needed. For example, in a project on the making at minimum cost of an attractive dress for a child, the only record really needed will be an account of the money spent. In a meal-planning and preparation project the record necessary for a satisfactory evaluation of results will be the menus as planned; the changes made; the results of each meal in time, money, and satisfaction. In a child-care project the record may consist only of evidences of improvement in both the girl and the child.

Some teachers use a card about 5 by 8 inches for these reports. On this card the pupil writes why she selected the project, what she wants to accomplish, her general plan of work, any records she needs to keep, and her opinion concerning her success. Other teachers prefer to use a sheet with sections marked off by mimeographed titles, as:

NAME OF PROJECT

Date begun

Date completed

Reason for choosing this project

Mother's agreement

Plan

Records

Summary

Evaluation

Many girls illustrate their project reports with pictures, and often this is even better than a lengthy description.

Pupils can easily make up their own record forms, allowing the right amount of space to meet their own needs, making them neat and attractive in form and of the right size to fit their notebooks. These homemade records permit freedom in spacing and arrangement and offer opportunity for originality and initiative.

The originality of one girl, who was in second-year home-making, was shown by verses she included in the story of her project.

MY HOME PROJECT

My home project was mentioned and I was surprised,
To find I had finished the job, I had little despised.

First bought was the pattern, Vogue, I believe,
Material was bought second, and was I relieved?

I took my pattern piece by piece,
A slim one I chose, for fear I'd become obese.

Then "whack" went the scissors and I was done,
But when matching notches the headaches begun.

With that job done and my bastings made,
I fitted it to me when my pleats I had laid.

I put in my top stitching with lots of care,
And of the trouble I had, there's none to compare.

Next came the zipper and I must admit,
Was the hardest part of all to fit.

I put on the band and as you would guess,
I had much disappointment and little success.

Next, the button-hole, a job in its self,
Took most of the patience that I had left.

The end was pleasant, the hem, I believe,
Was put in not two times but rather—three.

The fitting was perfect, and to my delight,
I finished my skirt and 'twas done right!

"My Home Project," *Arkansas Vocational Visitor, Home Economics Section*, Vol. 21 (April-May, 1946), p. 8.

GUIDING THE GIRL'S EVALUATION OF HER PROJECT

After a home project is completed, you will want to continue to guide your students in evaluating the results of their experiences. The right attitude toward this final reviewing can best be secured by holding before them a spirit of scientific research throughout the entire home project; that is, a desire to experiment carefully and to judge results carefully. Before the work is undertaken you may set up this ideal through informal discussion. Later by frequent looking backward to measure progress, you may accustom them to the idea that every result is to be weighed before it is accepted.

When helping a girl to judge her experience, you may ask her to tell you what she considers the most successful part of her project, what she would change if she were to repeat it, and what she gained by doing it. According to the criteria for a project, it is not really finished until this step is completed. The girl who brings in the dress which she has made and lays it down on the teacher's desk with the remark, "There is my home project," has not completed her project, educationally speaking. Both you and the student need to go over the plan and her garment and determine how each might have been improved. If you both agree upon a written evaluation, the statement may include an account of difficulties met and overcome, an honest estimate of what she learned, and of how nearly the original goal was reached.

Such a written evaluation is illustrated below from the report made by a girl whose project was managing herself and her time.

EVALUATION OF MY PROJECT: MANAGING THE USE OF MY TIME

I have three or four very troublesome difficulties.

One was that Miss B., Mr. H., Mrs. D., Rev. S., Ruth F., or Mrs. H.

EVALUATION OF YOUR PROJECT

An answer "yes" to each question indicates success

Girl Teacher

Selection of the project

- Did you need to do this project? _____
- Did it meet a need at home? _____
- Did mother approve of it? _____
- Was it hard enough for you? _____
- Was the expense justified? _____

Plans for the project

- Were your aims clear and definite? _____
- Did you plan each step carefully? _____
- Was your estimate of the amount of work involved accurate? _____
- Did you plan adequately for the cooperation of your family? _____
- Did you plan for sufficient help? _____
- Did you plan for a record? _____

Achievement

- Do you consider your project a success? _____
- Was your home improved because of it? _____
- Did you grow as a home member? _____
- Did you develop skills and managerial ability? _____
- Did you use your initiative to meet problems? _____
- Do you have a feeling of satisfaction? _____

port may depend upon the ability to express oneself rather than upon ability to carry out a good piece of work. You need to see a pupil's work in its setting. Your task is to estimate the growth that has resulted from the total experience.

USE OF CONFERENCES IN GUIDING HOME EXPERIENCES

In most of the schools approved for vocational homemaking, time is allotted in the daily schedule of the teacher for one or more conference periods. Some states have outlined specifically the number of conference periods per week the teacher is to have in proportion to the number of students enrolled in her classes. In this way her time is set free from class and study hall so she can give time to conferring with

This conference period is in reality a counseling period and the principles of counseling given in Chapter XVI apply. Often feelings and personal problems will come up in connection with home experiences of either the practice or project type, though most of the discussion will be about the experience itself. In this case you are both a counselor and a person who supplies information. As suggested in the section on counseling you will not do the thinking for the girl but guide her to do it for herself. You will give her information that she needs, or help her find that information, give her suggestions to think through, show her how something may be done, but the girl will do the thinking.

When girls are thinking about projects which they are interested in taking, it is advisable to talk with each girl at least once, better two or three times. You will talk about the conditions in the girl's home, what the girl is interested in doing, and why, and how her tentative plans can fit into her family life. It is a good time to have the girl tell you about what she enjoys doing, what she is looking forward to for herself, whether money is easy or difficult to obtain at home, and so on. At the end of the first conference the girl should have several ideas about experiences she would be interested in and be ready to talk them over with her mother before making a final decision.

When the second conference takes place, the girl should be ready to talk with you concerning possible plans for her project: What she would like to do, how to do it, what she should get out of it, when she would work, and so on. You will help her to see problems which she had not anticipated,

suggest sources of help, help her plan her time, think through the steps of the procedures she is to use, and plan what records will be kept.

When the projects are being carried on, group conferences are desirable in which the girls make reports on their progress and success. You as a teacher can note progress and decide which girls need further individual help; you can commend achievement and stimulate increased interest and effort. During the execution of the project you may perhaps visit the girl at home, and have another conference with her and her mother at that time.

When the project is nearly or entirely completed, a final conference is desirable at which you will lead the girl to see *all* of the values in what she has done. You may lead her to analyze her difficulties, to plan how the final report will be made, and see additional things that she might do.

For guiding home experiences a three-way conference of the parents, the student, and the teacher is often helpful. This conference may be either at home or at school, but it may be more helpful and all may be more at ease in the pupil's home.

Ideally three or four conferences with each girl about her home experiences would be desirable, but you will find this impossible if you are in a school with a large enrollment in homemaking classes.

Group conferences. For guiding home experiences, group conferences as well as individual conferences have their place. A group discussion early in the year of kinds of experiences that might be selected may help all to realize the meaning and purpose of home experience. This may be done in a class period. Occasional small group conferences for pupils to report progress on their home experiences have also been found effective. As the members of the group share their successes and difficulties they receive from each other encouragement and ideas for ways to meet difficulties. Group

conferences to evaluate the experiences and compare the learning each pupil has done are also good learning experiences in themselves, if they are well conducted. These too may be held during a class period.

Conference records. Many teachers find it helpful to keep a record of conferences and of home visits. If you have many students, a record for each pupil may be especially necessary because you cannot keep in mind all you need to know about each pupil and his home-experience plans. A card that can be easily filed has been found satisfactory. Some teachers use a sheet of paper that can be filed in a folder with other information about each pupil. Only essential items to help you remember the kind of experience and the problems you have discussed with the pupil should be included. One record is given as an example of what you may want to keep.

PROJECT AND CONFERENCE RECORD

Name _____ Phone _____

<i>Home Experience</i>	<i>Conference at Home</i>	<i>Conference at School</i>
Project: Refinishing old dresser	Oct. 6—Some dresser varnish to be removed; tightened, and refinished Oct. 15—Examined dresser with varnish partly removed. Suggested fine sandpaper. Nov. 15—Saw dresser finished. Looks fine.	Oct. 3—Talked of dresser. Suggested bulletin on refinishing work. Oct. 20—Explained oil and wax finish.

Such records as the one shown here are good reminders. However, extremely elaborate ones become a nuisance and a source of frustration and worry because you will find yourself with bulky files and be unable to keep them up to date. You will want to develop a workable form for yourself for your own situation.

PROBLEMS

1. One teacher went to her new school in a rural community a week early. She and the superintendent visited every home to be represented in her class and explained the work she planned to do, including home projects. Another teacher in a large town with some one hundred and fifty pupils in her classes felt that calling on each home was an impossibility. She asked the girls to write her a letter telling of their homes, their ambitions, and their present responsibilities. She wrote a letter, had it mimeographed attractively, and sent it to each mother, telling of the work and asking her co-operation in home projects. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the two procedures for the promotion of home-school co-operation?

2. List possible home projects that might be suitable for boys.

3. List possible home practices that might be valuable for ninth-grade girls.

4. A freshman girl had not worked much inside but had done a great deal of outside work on the farm. She had helped with dishwashing occasionally but had never cooked. She found that most of the other girls in the class were going to prepare some meals at home, so she decided that she would prepare all of the meals for her family of five people during the Thanksgiving week-end. What additional information would you need and what suggestions might you give this girl?

5. Suppose that you have two homemaking classes in a small high school. You are planning home projects with the girls and find they are interested in projects but feel strongly that they do not want to make written reports of them. In what ways could you handle the situation?

6. Miss Brown had each girl in her class hand in a report every time she did any work at home. Each report was signed by the girl's mother. Of what value is such a procedure? What dangers are inherent in it?

7. If you yourself have never carried a home project, after studying your own vocational experience and determining your needs from that study, select a home project that you think you can carry. Then carry out this project in all its steps and write a report of it as you think a high-school girl should report a project.

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~ CHAPTER XIII ~

Homemaking Education for Boys

Perhaps in no phase of home-economics education have developments been more interesting than in the area of boys' home economics. Three or four decades ago most high-school boys looked upon home economics as a "girls' subject." Only girls or sissies took home economics! Yet even then some boys were interested. During the succeeding years interest in subjects taught in home economics increased.

NEED OF BOYS FOR FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION

Growing appreciation of need of boys for family life education. Growing appreciation of the need for boys and men to receive preparation for family living was evidenced in 1935 by a short paragraph which appeared in the *Chicago Schools Journal*.¹

The following letter arrived in the mail of a professor in a large eastern college:

"Many years of my life have been spent in school. In college I took the traditional course, receiving a degree upon its completion. Now, I find that the type of education my college gave me would fit me beautifully to become a Roman emperor, but at present writing there are no

¹ Mary E. Freeman, "Education Which Really Fits for Life," *Chicago Schools Journal* (March-December, 1935). Quoted by permission *Chicago Schools Journal*.

indications that I shall ever achieve that position. Alas, my professors were too ambitious for me. They never seemed to suspect that some day I might become a husband and a father. Will you kindly help me to solve some of the problems of family life which my teachers never anticipated that I would encounter?"

Six years later three national educational groups² issued publications in which this need of boys and men for education in family life was given recognition.

Illustrative of the point of view expressed in these publications is this statement,³

The importance of providing experiences in the school curriculum intended to prepare boys and men for assuming their share of responsibility as family members has but recently been recognized by school administrators and curriculum makers. Boys have worked in the industrial arts shops while girls have been in the home economics laboratories. The boys' interest in camp cookery first led them to ask for a share of time in the food laboratory. This interest is developing. In a number of senior high schools, boys are demanding a rather comprehensive program in homemaking. Their special interest is in units of work having to do with food selection and preparation, clothing selection, financing the home, care of children, and family relationships. The interests are highly personalized. Many schools are meeting this demand through their home economics departments.

In 1948 the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth restated the philosophy which had been developing and emphasized in the statement quoted below, that education for family life should be an essential part of education for living.

To deprive any large number of boys and girls of suitable opportunities to learn what they need to know in order to assume their full

² *Education for Family Life*, Nineteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1941).

Joseph K. Folsom, *Youth, Family and Education* (Washington, D.C., American Youth Commission, American Council on Education, 1941).

Bess Goodykoontz and Beulah I. Coon, *Family Living and Our Schools*, Joint Yearbook of the Department of Home Economics of the National Education Association and the Society for Curriculum Study (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941).

³ *Education for Family Life*, *op. cit.*, pp. 129-230.

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³ *Education for Family Life*, op. cit., pp. 129-230.

responsibilities as family members—first in the homes of their parents, later in homes of their own—is to jeopardize unduly our national security. The social problems which result from family breakdown are too well known to require enumeration here.⁴

Furthermore, the contribution which homemaking education can make to the adjustment of boys and girls to the conditions of daily living was recognized by the commission when it appointed a committee to make specific recommendations for the participation of homemaking education in the Life Adjustment Program.

Changes in family life increase needs of boys for homemaking education. In the democratic family of this generation, each member of the family plays a responsible part, not alone in the work of the home, but in the management of that home and in its relationships. It is no longer the man's responsibility to let the "woman do the work" and the "man bring home the bacon." The father is also a homemaker. A man was heard to say once. "My wife is the homemaker." Yet he was devoted to his daughter. When asked if he had not helped to "bring up" his daughter, he quickly answered, "Of course." "Then are you not also a homemaker?" he was asked, and after a moment's thought he answered, "I guess I am." Incidents like this illustrate the changing attitude of men toward homemaking.

As family life changes from the production type to the consumption type, the manipulative skills involved in homemaking decrease in value or change in type; management and guidance of relationships increase in importance. If we develop in our girls certain beliefs and attitudes toward home life, and those girls later marry boys with different attitudes, we are creating a situation that will demand many adjustments. As one principal of a large high school said,

⁴ "Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth," Federal Security Agency, Office of Education (Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1948), p. 89.

"We are educating for family friction, for we are educating only half the family for family life."

An increasing number of young women are working in paid occupations for several years after marriage, and many of their husbands are taking a greater share in all aspects of homemaking than was customary in earlier years. This sharing of family life is equally true in many older families. Consequently the need is greater than ever before for boys as well as girls to study homemaking.

Increasing recognition of the contribution of homemaking education. Parents, boys, and men, as well as educators, are recognizing the contribution which homemaking education can make to the education of boys. This recognition is in part due to the evolution of home economics from household skills into a broad study of home life, including the behavior of people, family relationships, and relations between home and community. This enlarged program of homemaking education gives consideration to the problems of the entire family and therefore contributes to the solution of problems of boys as well as those of girls. As *homemaking education* becomes increasingly centered on the *family*, its contribution to the education of boys and men will receive even greater recognition.

PROVISIONS FOR HOMEMAKING EDUCATION FOR BOYS

Homemaking education for boys is provided in the schools in a variety of ways. In some cases, homemaking and agriculture or industrial-arts teachers exchange classes for a few weeks. Some schools offer separate classes for boys. In many schools boys and girls are studying family problems together. Family life education is also usually included in a core curriculum.

In those schools where classes in homemaking and agrif-

culture are exchanged, the girls go into the shop for a few weeks and study those things pertaining to home life which the agriculture or industrial-arts teacher is particularly well equipped to teach. The boys go into the *homemaking* department and study problems in home living which they and the teacher consider important and pertinent, such as social customs, caring for their clothes, preparing meals, or selecting meals at a restaurant. The value of such an exchange of classes lies partly in the appreciation and understanding which each group gains concerning the work and interests of the other.

Courses offered as separate classes for boys vary in content with the ages of the boys they are to serve, the teacher's understanding of boys, and perhaps with the traditions of the school. Some boys' classes are still cooking classes. Most of them, however, are broader and include the study of boys' problems related to clothing and food, understanding children, relationships with their friends and so on. The scope of the material which may be taught is limited only by the interests and needs of boys in the community.

In schools where joint classes are used, boys and girls *together* study many problems of personal and social development and of home living. They sometimes prepare simple family meals together. They may discuss together questions concerning social customs, and use actual class and social activities as part of their study. They may study housing and family finances for new families. Perhaps the most common joint class is one offered for eleventh- and twelfth-grade pupils. So much attention is being directed to this plan that a later section in this chapter is devoted to it.

Schools with a core curriculum are placing education for social and family adjustment in that curriculum which all pupils in the school follow. Certainly all boys and girls should understand social relations, family and community relations, many consumer problems, and something of the

growth and development of human beings. Therefore these may well be made a part of a group of core studies.

No records are available which will give the number of boys now studying homemaking in the high schools. It is a fairly common practice, however, to have boys in homemaking classes in a vocational program, and the yearly issues of the Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education give figures for vocational programs. The Digest * for 1951 reported that 20,225 boys enrolled in day-school classes during that year. They were in such classes in all but nine states, with a variation between states from 3 to 5350. Development within the states has evidently not been uniform.

What and when to teach in separate classes, what and when to teach in joint classes we do not yet know. Three boys once discussed the question with a group of homemaking teachers. An eighth-grade boy said he thought that boys and girls should study home life together because they lived together at home and worked together there. A ninth-grade boy said that he thought boys should study separately from girls because they had more fun that way. A senior boy said that he thought some things should be studied together, but other things they should study separately because boys could talk some problems over more freely if they were alone. *Perhaps this senior boy's statement gives the cue to follow in deciding whether to have classes for boys alone or joint classes.*

Thoughtful consideration must be given to the problems of special concern to boys and those of special concern to girls. Such consideration in a community may disclose much similarity in their needs, but perhaps some differences. Experience of many teachers with mixed classes seems to indicate that there are few needs that cannot be met satisfactorily

* Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education (Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1951).

in co-educational classes. The decision to have boys' classes or mixed classes is one each school will have to make. Administrative convenience, the feeling of the teacher about the way she can work best with the group, and the particular conditions in the community, will guide the decision.

HOME NEEDS AND INTERESTS OF BOYS

Various studies have been made of home activities and interests of boys, but as yet the evidence is not sufficiently clear to indicate what content should be included in classes for boys of different physiological age or emotional maturity. Studies of adolescents have made it clear, however, that boys, like girls, develop according to a general pattern; that boys tend to mature later than girls; that only near the end of their high-school years do boys and girls begin to approach the same level of emotional maturity. Desire for approval of one's peers is an especially strong influence upon behavior during the adolescent years. Boys, like girls, want to wear the same kind of clothes, do the same things at the same time, use the same slang, and in every way identify themselves with their crowd. Relationships are, therefore, of great interest and importance at this age.

In addition to knowing the general needs of adolescent boys, each teacher must study the particular interests and needs of each group she is to teach, just as she does with girls. All the techniques for studying pupils which were suggested in Chapter V can be used to find these needs.

Questions asked by boys. When boys are given an opportunity to list questions they would like to study, such questions as these are given:

1. How do you ask a girl you have never gone with for a date?
2. How do you break a date when it is necessary?
3. What do you talk about when you go to your girl's house and you have to sit down and talk to her mother?

4. Should a little sister stay in the room when you have a date with your girl?
5. Is steady dating a good thing?
6. What traits do girls like in boys?
7. How do you carry on a conversation while dancing?
8. What should you say if a girl turns you down when you ask her for a dance?
9. If a boy and girl are being introduced, is it correct for them to shake hands?
10. If two boys are walking with a girl on the street, should they both walk on the outside or one on each side of her?
11. What kind of clothes should we wear to the school party?
12. When you're going through one of those doors you have to push hard, do you go through first and hold it open or reach around her and let your girl go through first?
13. Why did I grow so tall and my brother John stay so short?
14. How do you get over being bashful?
15. How can I press my own trousers?
16. How do you order a meal at a hotel?
17. How do I know that I am getting a good buy when I buy a suit?
18. Our house is certainly out-of-date. Is there anything I could do to make it look more modern?
19. Should I have to help with the dishes at home? I think that is sis's job.
20. What do you do when your older brother teases you all the time?
21. Why won't dad let me drive the car?
22. How do you get parents to be more democratic with you?
23. Why do parents insist on your going only to certain places and with certain people?
24. If you earn money, should you give part of it to your parents?
25. My girl and I could get married next year if we both worked. Should we?

Comments of boys suggest needs. Comments made by boys more or less casually will often give clues to situations in which difficulties arise in family living. These may suggest areas of problems for study. Below are comments boys have made about situations that trouble them.

"My little brother tags me around everywhere I go around the house. I surely get tired of it."

"Dad and mother object to my going out with the boys every night but there is nothing to do at home."

"I have to get my own meals at home often now that mother's working. I wish I knew how to cook."

"Dad and I want to buy a television set but Mother can't see it. She says we need so many things worse."

"I can talk with mother about things but I can't talk to my dad."

"My family won't let me turn the radio on to the programs I want. They think they are silly."

"I get so embarrassed when my long legs will not go under the seat. Sometimes I kick the table leg at home when I sit down to dinner and mother always says, Don't *do* that."

"Jane sure acted mad last evening when I called her and told her my father had changed his mind and wouldn't let me have the car."

An analysis of the questions raised by boys and the situations that bother them shows that three basic areas of boys' experiences should be given consideration when courses are planned with them: *first*, problems they are facing in making satisfying social adjustments; *second*, problems about their personal developments that give them concern; and *third*, problems they are facing in their relationships and responsibilities in family life.

CO-EDUCATIONAL CLASSES IN HOMEMAKING

Many schools are experimenting with classes in which boys and girls together study about family life. These classes are usually for pupils in the last two years of high school, when boys and girls are approaching comparable levels of maturity. Although there is a great variety in the content of the courses, all place emphasis upon the family, as is indicated by various names used for courses: Modern Living, Social and Family Problems, Personal and Family Living,

course that is only a semester or a year in length. It is evident that teachers and pupils working together have a wealth of material to draw from, and selection can be made wisely, only if decisions are based upon the needs and interests of both boys and girls in a particular class.

Methods. Any method of teaching used with other groups can be used effectively with a co-educational group but an informal friendly situation is almost a "must" when boys and girls together are studying family life. Every possible obstacle to freedom of thought and expression should be removed. Emotional tensions must be prevented. Each boy and each girl needs to feel at ease, relaxed and free to be himself or herself. Classes, therefore, should be kept fairly small. When the class is discussing a problem, it is a good arrangement to have them around a table, perhaps in the clothing laboratory. An even better arrangement is to have the class meet in the social room of the school or homemaking department. *The social room is an excellent setting when the group is practicing social customs.* Of course, if meal preparation is in the program, kitchens and meal service facilities are necessary.

Teachers in the thirty-nine schools in the study cited above used a wide variety of methods and devices which, when analyzed, were found to be characterized by their emphasis on discussion, use of *real* situations, liberal use of community resources, and reading of current literature. *Motion pictures, radio programs, articles from current magazines and newspapers, skits and spontaneous dramatization* were widely used as starting points for discussing problems of boy-girl, family, or community relationships. Panel discussions and small group discussions or "buzz groups" were frequent activities. Role-playing was often used to study situations in which strong feelings were involved.

In contrast to just reading and discussing what they read, these groups made much use of real situations. They gave

parties, observed children on the playground, and prepared meals for particular occasions. In place of using only textbooks, they read daily newspapers, bulletins, current magazines and books, and discussed them in class. Then they developed the principles or generalizations they needed.

Community resources were used in several ways. The class investigated various situations in the community. They consulted with authorities and interviewed people. They asked townspeople to come into class to talk over problems with them. They worked with various organizations. They took many field trips.

This discussion of co-educational classes in homemaking is not complete without pointing out that boys and girls of high-school age are making personal and social adjustments to which you, the homemaking teacher, have much to contribute. You have an opportunity to so integrate the study of homemaking by boys and girls that homes of the future, which will be made by fathers and mothers from your present groups of boys and girls, will be homes of well-adjusted people with similar ideals of home life.

GENERALIZATIONS TO GUIDE THE TEACHER OF BOYS

1. Understanding of *problems of boys* and of *homes of boys* is necessary in order to adapt teaching to boys' needs and interests.
2. A course in homemaking for boys should be planned with them.
3. The content of a homemaking class for boys should be both problems of immediate interest to them and problems which *they* recognize they will have in the future as family members.
4. Any method of teaching used with girls is suitable for use with boys, if well selected to achieve the goal in view.

5. When boys and girls are in the same class the problems dealt with should be those of *common* interest and need.

6. An informal setting is especially conducive to good work in co-educational classes.

7. A teacher who is sensitive and responsive to the feelings of the class members promotes freedom of expression in co-educational classes.

PROBLEMS

1. Talk with a number of your college men friends and find out what they think about boys studying home life.

2. Clip several articles from newspapers which you think imply that education in home life is desirable for boys as well as for girls. Justify your decision in each case.

3. What are the arguments for and against having boys be members of Future Homemakers of America or New Homemakers of America?

4. Work out a unit of clothing to be studied by boys in the upper grades of high school.

5. What advantages and disadvantages do you see in teaching homemaking to boys in classes with girls? In separate classes?

6. Make a plan for leading a class of senior boys and girls to plan their own course in family living.

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into sections, probably by weeks or projects; and (4) you will need to plan for working with your pupils each day. Pupils can assist in making each of these four types of plans.

Teacher-pupil planning for a unit. Since we learn more effectively the things that we want to learn and the things that have meaning for us, it is apparent that pupils who share in planning for their own learning will learn best. In the shifting and unpredictable times in which we live today, pupils need to learn to face new situations and adjust to them far more than they need to learn a body of predetermined subject matter or patterns of actions. Therefore it has become increasingly important for pupils to share in planning for their own learning. What procedures can the teacher use to guide this planning toward goals that are both achievable and worthy of achievement? Just asking pupils what they want to learn is not sufficient. Neither will it suffice to ask them, "What would you like to do next?" Such questions imply that answers are based on likes and dislikes, and not upon purposeful and critical thinking. It requires thoughtful leadership on the part of the teacher to guide pupils' planning and bring forth their best and clearest thinking. How do you plan to bring about this teacher-pupil planning for a unit?

Your first step will be your own exploration of the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils in relation to the particular area of experience under consideration. On the basis of this study of your pupils you will mentally formulate some goals they might select. Having done this, you will proceed to plan for the unit somewhat as follows:

First, you will plan how you can place the class in a situation from which the desired interest and intent to learn will come; how you can set the stage so the pupils will recognize a problem and become interested in solving it.

Second, you will plan how, when the time is ripe and the class has become interested, you may get them to plan the

goals toward which they need to work, and the activities that might accomplish those goals.

Third, you will spend some time by yourself organizing the suggestions of the class, planning for illustrative materials, activities, books, and supplies that the group will need to use in the course of their study. Since you are part of this pupil-teacher planning group, you too may make suggestions for experiences the pupils might have.

Fourth, you will plan day by day how to guide the class through the activities you and your class decide upon. You will keep the plans continually before the class. You will provide time for the group to discuss the progress they have made toward their goals and to make additional plans for further progress. Thus, day by day, planning co-operatively, you will guide them to the successful completion of their plans.

Fifth, you will plan how to guide the group to evaluate their progress, and make plans for their further development.

Suppose we attempt to illustrate how the teacher plans for pupil-teacher planning in a boys' class studying a unit on social customs. Let us assume that you have watched the boys, that you know them well, and that you have gathered many ideas and suggestions from this observation and from comments they have dropped. Your planning will then go somewhat as follows:

First: To plan for the discovery of interests of the boys you will try to find out what their questions are. You might ask them to write them to hand in or you might discuss such questions as these:

What questions about social customs would you want us to take up in class?

Were you ever embarrassed because you did not know what to do in some social situation involving girls?

Would you like to entertain your girl friends in some way; perhaps have a picnic or a camp-supper party?

The junior-senior banquet will occur in a few weeks. Are there any

kinds of things you would like to know about, what to wear, how to seat your partners, and so forth?

What other social activities would you like to discuss or practice in class?

Second: To plan with the boys what to learn and what to do, you will want to start with questions which the boys themselves have indicated as of concern to them. Suppose that, quite unexpectedly, the boys say that first of all they would like to take their girl friends to a movie, and have some food afterward. To help the boys make their plans, you may want to raise questions such as these:

What do you think you would learn from such a party (objective)?

What do you boys think we should plan for, if you are to take the girls to the movies? (Analysis of project)

We use certain social customs when going out together; which of them do you know? Which do you need to study? (Locating the pupils' questions)

What do you and the girls talk about? Do you have trouble keeping up a conversation?

What shall we have to eat and where shall we have it? (Guiding the plan for serving the food)

We shall need to finance the party; how shall we do it?

We shall also need to divide responsibility; how shall we do that?

How much class time should be devote to this party?

What proportion of the four weeks you thought we should spend on social customs shall we spend on this one activity?

These questions will force the boys to think through plans for the party and its place in the unit on social customs. No doubt other questions will be raised by the boys. They will need to decide which are most important for them to study. Perhaps they will ask some questions about social customs like the following:

What should you talk about to the girl friend's parents?

Should you go around the car to let a girl in the car?

Should you kiss her when you take her home?

Should you hold hands with your best girl?

How do you introduce your girl to another fellow?

How can you meet someone you want to meet?

What do you do if your folks say you have to be in at a certain time and the rest of the gang wants to stay out longer?

Third: To plan definitely for the experience you will, by yourself, think over what the boys have suggested and tentatively planned. Then you will organize the entire plan, block out a possible time plan for its execution, and take care of administrative details. You will formulate generalizations that you believe are pertinent to the solution of the problems the boys are trying to solve. You will consider how you can be sure that the boys come to understand these generalizations and others they may discover. Thus, you mold into workable form the tentative co-operative plans.

Fourth: Having made a general plan for guiding the boys through the experience, you will stand by to help them plan day by day to its completion.

Fifth: To lead them to summarize and formulate generalizations and evaluate their experience when the party is over you may plan with the group to judge their experience. Questions such as these may be raised either by you or by the boys.

In what ways was the party a success?

How might it have been improved?

What was "not so good"?

What did you learn that you can apply in other situations?

Many questions have been asked which we have not been able to talk about; for instance some of you asked about dances. Would you be interested in continuing our study of social customs for other occasions?

A little thought will show how the teacher in this illustration might have *overplanned* the project; in other words, planned too definitely and decisively. She might have planned so thoroughly for the junior-senior banquet that she would have steered the boys into discussing that instead of the activity they proposed; or she might have determined herself what the refreshments should be, and how they should be served. She might have had the boys do the origi-

nal planning and from then on have done all of it herself, and thereby deprived the boys of the growth which would come to them through their own initiative and management. There is real danger of overplanning so that the teacher dominates the situation. The foregoing tentative plan is of course incomplete, but it indicates how a teacher can lead a class to plan activities from which they may learn. Perhaps one may summarize the principles of planning as follows:

1. A teacher must *plan for co-operative planning*.
2. Plans must be elastic and flexible.
3. Plans grow as pupils and teacher think together.
4. Goals to be achieved must all be considered in planning.
5. All the resources and material needed must be considered in planning.

Planning for a project. The foregoing illustration of co-operative planning also illustrates how teacher and pupils may plan for a project.

An experience becomes a project when it involves the four elements of pupil purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating. When trying to develop an experience curriculum for her pupils, the teacher will work toward purposeful experiences that will approach real projects in proportion to the degree of pupil purposing, planning, and so on. The first step, pupil purposing, is frequently the most difficult for many teachers, particularly in the traditional school where pupils have had little opportunity to direct their own activities.

Perhaps it will help the young teacher if the planning steps are outlined in terms of the four elements of a project.

1. *To plan for pupil purposing*

Watch for suggestions for activities as they come from the class, and plan to develop them. Plan to place pupils in challenging situations, to have them meet

challenging problems, and to envisage interesting activities.

Plan to have them take the responsibility for an experience, making it meaningful and real for them.

Plan to have the pupils meet the situation thoughtfully and individually and decide to carry it through.

Plan many possible ways to work out projects, and several ways for having ideas presented and discussed by the group.

Plan to have the pupils analyze the situation with deliberation and without undue emotion.

Plan for each individual to share in planning for the activity and for working it out, refraining from dictating or unduly influencing pupils with your ideas.

Plan day by day to help pupils get and use needed resources for working out their own plans.

Plan what should be brought out in the evaluation of the project.

Plan to guide pupils to evaluate their own progress and state generalizations or principles that will apply in other situations.

2. To plan for pupil planning

3. To plan for pupil executing

4. To plan for pupil evaluating

Through these steps the teacher will be able to guide pupils in achieving self-direction, thus making the process itself educative, and to guide progress toward successful independent achievement. The teacher first plans tentatively, then definitely in co-operation with pupils.

PLANNING FOR THE WEEK

Planning for at least a week in advance is very important, as it helps in making your work progress smoothly and as

rapidly as your class can go, tends to bring about the completion of your projects with dispatch, helps to prevent waste of time, allows you to make adequate provision for field trips, and gives you time to provide desirable illustrative material. On one day each week you will probably want to plan with your class for the special activities of the following week. Thus you and the class will both know what is expected. This planning will not necessarily be in detail but will indicate approaching deadlines for completing certain work, days for field trips or laboratory, and periods when outside persons such as parents or people from stores are to come to share in the class work. Careful advance planning will also give you a feeling of real satisfaction when you leave the school building on Friday evening with your work for the following week so outlined that you need only the regular day-by-day revising.

Many superintendents require each teacher to keep a plan book which must be filled out before she leaves the school on Friday. This compels every teacher to think ahead, but should not take away the flexibility desirable to meet pupils' needs. It also provides a statement which can be handed to a substitute teacher if an emergency makes one necessary. With these plans organized even in brief form the substitute can take over the work with a minimum amount of loss by the class.

If a regular plan book is not provided, you will find an inexpensive notebook quite usable. The page may be divided in half either with a line or with a crease in the paper. A brief plan for the work of each day may be written on one half of the page, and such suggestions for teaching as come to you while planning—supply lists or special devices, and so forth—may be written on the other half. If half of the page is left free, it may be used to record changes in the program when for some reason the original plan needs to be revised. This system has the advantage of furnishing a

record both of what was planned and of what was actually done. Evidence of pupil needs or development, and also generalizations that were developed, may be recorded.

ILLUSTRATION OF PART OF DAILY PLAN BOOK

(Unit on Personal grooming)

Home Economics I
Plan

Home Economics I
Changes Made

MONDAY	Shampoo hair—Jean and Bess will demonstrate. Study various soaps and wave sets. Committee I report on selection of soaps.
TUESDAY	Effect of hard water—Committee II. Experiment with dressing hair. Develop judgment concerning becoming hair dress. Girls bring combs and work on one another.
WEDNESDAY	Curls come with hair dressed as they wish it. Class evaluates each other. Test soaps. Study advertisements of shampoos, wave set, soaps.
THURSDAY	Manicure nails—manicurist from Smart Shoppe will demonstrate. Girls work on one another.
FRIDAY	Discuss care of skin. Test powders. Study rouge, lipsticks Demonstrate use. Develop generalizations.

PLANNING FOR THE DAY

Having blocked out the program for the week, it now becomes necessary to plan day by day for each class period. You will find that you will plan, replan, and plan again. Interruptions, development and shift of thinking, and many other things will influence the way in which you conduct your class day by day. *Plans must be flexible, but nevertheless each day's class must be planned if success is to be achieved.*

Planning the lesson versus lesson plans. At this point it is necessary to distinguish between the terms *planning the lesson* and *lesson plans*. As used in this book, lesson plans mean the written part of planning the lesson. Planning the lesson is more comprehensive than a lesson plan, for many things about a lesson are thought through but not written. Every good teacher plans her lessons, but few experienced teachers make detailed lesson plans, though all of them find it extremely helpful to write a few important items which might otherwise be forgotten. What these points are will vary with the lesson and with the teacher—a statement of a problem, a list of points to be brought out, or steps in the lesson or in management may be all that is needed.

The student teacher will need to write more in planning her lesson than one who is experienced. Detailed written plans not only assure the supervisor that the work is satisfactorily outlined, but they clarify thinking, aid in organization, and help to prevent forgetfulness. But what to jot down will vary with the individual, with her experiences, with the situation, and with the type of procedure to be used. Experience has shown that some student teachers work better with a detailed plan, whereas to others a detailed plan is a handicap.

One student teacher who was president of the College Young Women's Christian Association and was a good leader at cabinet meetings had great difficulty in leading class discussion. When asked how she planned for the cabinet meetings, she said, "Why, I think what I want to do, and then write down three or four questions which I believe will start and keep them thinking." When the supervisor told her to plan her teaching lessons in the same way, her discussion leading improved immediately. Another student teacher for the same type of lesson needed to write the main problem, many key questions, answers to each, and sometimes even the names of the girls upon whom she wanted to

call. She said she had to do this in order to think the lesson through. However, when she taught the lesson she followed the development in the class instead of holding strictly to the letter of her detailed plan and so was a successful teacher. The first teacher needed little written planning, whereas the second needed much. Both, of course, needed to think through the lesson carefully.

Thinking through the lesson. A good teacher will visualize the class (as a group and as individuals), the material surroundings, and the equipment. In this comprehensive view of the lesson she will include the objective to be accomplished; the type of experiences that will best accomplish it; the problems to be solved and solutions for those problems; the use of equipment and materials; the use of time; and possible difficulties and their prevention. The experienced teacher will think of some of these things more or less unconsciously, but the inexperienced teacher will do it consciously until she, too, learns to see the lesson as a whole.

Plans for a lesson will always need to be flexible, for fifteen or twenty girls are active, thinking human beings charged with emotions and influenced by tradition, past experience, and present attitudes. Just what they will do or say or think cannot be predetermined; yet the lesson will be influenced by their thoughts, words, and actions.

In contrast to the danger of not planning carefully enough, there is also a real danger in overplanning in daily procedures as well as for the unit, especially for discussion lessons and project work. If the teacher plans so carefully and in so much detail that she can see only her own ideas and plans in the discussion, she will hinder the very activity she is planning to promote—namely, thinking and planning by the girls themselves.

Planning to have pupils recognize generalizations. Since every situation a pupil meets in life will be different in some respects from every other, we cannot hope to educate them

to meet each new experience unless we help them to recognize the principles or generalizations that can guide them. Ability to generalize is a difficult aspect of thinking. As we have pointed out in Chapter VI (page 120), if there is to be transfer of learning, principles and generalizations must be thoroughly understood. The teacher therefore has to plan to have the pupils recognize and formulate the principles or generalizations that are pertinent to each learning experience.

The method of getting the students to generalize is not very difficult. It really consists in stopping occasionally to say, "What have we learned?" Either you or the pupils may write the generalizations or principles on the board. Or you may ask each pupil to write a statement of what he has learned. The pupils may not realize essential relationships or may over-generalize. You may need to help them test their statements against known facts or against other situations, and thus clarify and modify their original statements.

Planning for a discussion. The plan for a discussion lesson needs to be very flexible, and consequently less may be written than for other types of lessons. Suggestions to help you plan for such a lesson can best be given by showing side by side the points to be thought through and those the average inexperienced teacher will need to write.

Points to Think Through

1. The objective of the day in its relation to that of the unit
2. The statement of the problem and the statement of the principles or generalizations involved
3. How class can analyze elements
4. All possible solutions of the problem
5. How to utilize and develop interest, challenge the group, and build on its experience.

Minimum Points to Write

1. The objective of the lesson
2. The statement of the problem
3. Generalizations involved
4. Key questions
5. Other problems involving the same principle

6. Key thought questions
7. Many applications of the generalizations involved and other problems involving the same principles or generalizations
8. Illustrative material needed
9. Leads to future activities

Planning for a laboratory lesson. It was shown in Chapter IX that a laboratory lesson consists of three sections: the planning, the activity, and the evaluation periods. Each will require planning. As in other kinds of lessons there are many things which must be thought through, and some of them you may want to write down. The former constitutes the lesson planning; the latter, the lesson plan.

Points to Think Through

1. Relation of the lesson to the unit or project
2. Objectives for the lesson
3. Planning period
 - a. Method of helping pupils to clarify the goal for the day
 - b. Orderly procedure for the work or the experiment
 - c. Method of developing procedure clearly with the group
 - d. Methods of getting pupils to plan the use of materials, equipment, time
 - e. Dangers and difficulties to be guarded against
 - f. Routine work, records, and room care needed
4. Activity period
 - a. Difficulties which may arise and how to prevent them
 - b. Particular pupils who may need help
 - c. Management of equipment and supplies

Minimum Points to Write

1. Objectives
2. Procedure to be developed with the pupils
3. Materials and supplies (at times)
4. Management of group (at times)
5. Time plan (at times)
6. Suggestions for overcoming possible difficulties

- | | |
|--|--|
| 5. Evaluation period
a. Time when evaluation will be developed
b. How this evaluation shall be made
c. Statement of the problem to be used
d. The forward look | 7. Supplies (at times)

8. Statement of the problem for evaluation
9. Score card, if one is to be used
10. Generalizations that are to be developed during the evaluation period |
|--|--|

From the above analysis it is evident that planning for a laboratory period involves many details, both in thinking through the lesson and in the amount to be written.

Planning for a demonstration. Planning for a demonstration involves deciding who shall give it and when, planning for the materials needed, thinking through the subject matter involved, planning for the management of the group and for meeting their needs. Little of this will be put in writing by the experienced teacher who is sure of herself, but the inexperienced teacher will need to write more, as shown by the following analysis.

Points to Think Through

1. Objectives of the demonstration in relation to those of the unit
2. Best time to give the demonstration
3. How to introduce the demonstration
4. Each step of the process in order
5. Points needing emphasis or explanation
6. Materials needed
7. Way to give it so that all can see
8. When and how to have the class practice, or apply the process in its individual work

Minimum Points to Write

1. Objectives
2. Consecutive steps in the demonstration
3. Points to be emphasized including generalizations
4. List of materials to be used or principles to be pointed out (at times)

In preparing to give a difficult demonstration you may find it helpful to make a detailed analysis of the process you want to show. This will clarify your own thinking, help you organize your method of work, and help you to avoid omissions. It has been very helpful to some teachers to write the plan, in four or five parallel columns. These columns may be headed as follows:

1. Time needed	2. To do	3. To say	4. To use	
			(a) Equipment	(b) Supplies

In developing the plan, each step in the process is written in column 2. The time required for each step is placed in column 1 but is filled in last. The important points to include by way of explanation of each step are written briefly in column 3. The equipment needed is listed in column 4a and supplies in column 4b or these can be combined in one column, if not too numerous.

Finally the time required is estimated and indicated in column 1. If the time required to do a step in the process takes longer than the time required to make the necessary explanation, other points will need to be added in column 3 to balance the time. If on the other hand the talking planned is too long for the time needed to do that step, some way of leaving part of the explanation until later will have to be decided upon.

By having the equipment and supplies listed opposite each step, they can easily be checked as the demonstrator is preparing to give the demonstration, and nothing will be forgotten. This scheme of using parallel columns is espe-

cially helpful for beginners in demonstration since it insures thorough preparation and encourages proper balancing of time for doing and talking.

Planning for a field trip. Planning for a field trip involves making arrangements for the trip with school administrators, managers of business establishments, or the mother in a home, and with the class; planning for the guidance of the trip; and planning for the evaluation afterward.

Points to Think Through

Minimum Points to Write

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Planning for the trip: | |
| a. Purpose | |
| b. Arrangements to be made | 1. Points pupils are to look for during the field trip |
| c. How to help pupils to clarify the purpose of the trip | 2. Questions or problems for the pupils to solve after the trip is taken |
| d. How to make arrangements clear to the pupils | 3. Arrangements (at times) |
| e. Possible difficulties to be avoided | |
| f. How to develop standards of conduct | |
| g. Materials needed, if any | |
| 2. Guiding the trip: | |
| a. How to guide thinking of pupils | |
| b. How to manage the group en route | |
| 3. Evaluating trip: | |
| a. Things which were seen that the class should explain | 4. Procedure for the summary and evaluation |
| b. Problems and generalizations for the summary and evaluation | 5. Generalizations to be made (at times) |

WRITTEN PLANS

It is inadvisable, if not even impossible, to attempt to give here an illustration of a model lesson plan, for there is no such thing. As said before, every plan must be made by an individual teacher for a specific situation, for a particular

group. The plans of no two teachers or student teachers are ever alike even though both may be working toward the same goal. It may help, however, to give a few lesson plans which have been used with a certain degree of success by student teachers, and to analyze them in terms of their results.

Evaluation of written plan for laboratory. The first plan to be evaluated is that of a student teacher who had been working with a ninth-grade group of girls for less than three weeks. There were twenty-one girls in the class in a room which was very crowded. The class was working on meal projects, during which meals were planned, prepared, served, and evaluated. During several days preceding the one for which the plan is given, class time had been devoted to planning a day's menu, to studying how to serve a simple breakfast, and to practicing the poaching of eggs and making of cocoa. During the day immediately preceding, the class had planned a day's menu, worked out an order list for the breakfast, and planned how they would work in the laboratory. It had been agreed that two girls in each family group would prepare a breakfast for four. The other two would only observe the preparation but would eat the meal with the family. The plan given here is the one used by the student teacher, and has not been changed or edited.

Objective: Group I to prepare a good breakfast
Group II to evaluate the breakfast

Pupil Problems

Teaching Aids

We are going to prepare our breakfasts and evaluate them today.

What groups are preparing?

Do you have any questions before you start?

The rest of you will observe your table partners and evaluate their meal. Let us list points to watch in evaluating. What do you think

Have a show of hands.

Check on aprons, recipes, clean hands.

List points on board:

1. Time management
2. Attractiveness of table and meal

we should watch for? What makes a good meal?

3. Work
4. Cleanliness
5. Tastiness
6. Service
7. Nutrition

Be sure to write your evaluation down and hand it in before you leave.

You are all ready now to work. Work as quietly as possible.

Be alert to help when needed. Remind of time.

The first ten minutes of time were taken up with discussion, out of which the entire group decided to evaluate the meal according to these questions.

- Was the work neat at all times?
- Was the food clean?
- Were the work and time organized?
- How was the service?
- Was it appetizing?
- Was it attractively served?
- Is there enough being served?

The girls in the family group who were to prepare the meal went to work quickly and efficiently and with a purpose, but the observers were not sure what they were to do and the teacher had to talk with them individually. The meals were prepared and served, and the clean-up done very well indeed—so well, in fact, that they were all through ten minutes before the close of the hour. When the first group was finished, the teacher found some books for them to read. But when the others finished, they stood around and talked until the bell rang.

Now what was good about this teacher's plan and what was lacking? Referring to "Points to Think Through," page 275, you will see that the student teacher had thought of her objective, though not in terms of abilities of girls. She had planned for a planning period, with all the points taken care of except *use of time and possible difficulties*. She had

planned to have the evaluation period on the following day. Good points of this plan were:

1. She planned all three parts of the laboratory period—planning, activity, and evaluation.
2. In her short discussion period at the beginning of the hour, she planned to make sure that each one in the class knew what she was to do and how it was to be done.
3. She planned the organization of the class to take care of crowded conditions and of available equipment.
4. She planned for the group to set up its own standards for the meal, that is, co-operative planning.

Points lacking in the planning were:

1. Her objectives were in terms of the meal and not in terms of the growth of the girls, indicating that she was thinking of the meal activity rather than of the girls and their development.
2. She failed to have the girls plan their time management.
3. She failed to plan for all possible difficulties, such as time unused.
4. She had planned so definitely for the evaluation to be on the next day that she failed to see that the last ten minutes of the lesson might be used for an evaluation of the meal which had just been completed. In other words, she had not planned flexibly enough.
5. She made sure that the cooks knew their part, but did not make so sure about the observers. This was no doubt due to planning a meal rather than planning for pupil development.
6. There is no evidence that she would have her class make appropriate generalizations from their laboratory experience during the evaluation period.

Evaluation of written plans for a discussion. Following are two plans for discussion periods, the first with the objective of developing some ability to plan for a social situation, and the second developing social attitudes.

LESSON PLAN I

Planning a Tea for the Teachers

Objective: To plan for serving tea for the teachers before their staff meeting in the afternoon.

Problem: The teachers have staff meeting Wednesday at the close of school. Once you suggested that you might serve them tea. Today we must make our plans.

Key question: What are all the things we must think about in making the plans?

What do you think we should serve?

How should you serve it?

Where can you find flowers or something to decorate the table?

What responsibilities must we plan for and who shall take each?

When will you do each task?

How shall you greet your guests?

Suggestions

Tea Sandwiches

Cocoa Tea cakes

Cookies

Preparation of food

Preparation of table

Who shall pour?

Who shall serve?

Cleaning up afterwards

The objective stated here is specific but is in terms of a job to be accomplished rather than in terms of pupil development. The plan provides key questions to think through; it shows that decisions are to be left to the class; it suggests that planning will include time management and social relations, as well as details of preparation and serving. The questionable parts of the plan are really in the statement of the problem and the assumption that the group is interested and sees value in serving the tea. Also no provision is evident for them to secure information if it is needed.

LESSON PLAN II

Social Attitudes toward "Going Dutch"

Objective: To develop desirable attitudes toward boy and girl relations.

Problem: The boys in my morning class asked a question. I am interested in getting your answers to it, so that I may tell the boys what you think. Here is what they asked. If a boy takes a girl out for a ride and they stop for an ice-cream cone, should he let the girl pay for her own?

Questions that may be discussed:

If a girl has more money than the boy why should she not pay the bill?

Do you think that comradeship between boys and girls can be developed comparable to that between girls?

Boys usually earn money more easily than girls. To what extent would this make any difference?

If you feel that the boy should pay or if you feel that you should pay your part, would either view inhibit happy relations with some boys?

What would have been the answer when your father and mother were your age?

Are you living in a better age or worse? Why?

What answer shall I take to the boys?

The above lesson plan is a skeleton of questions that *may* come up during the discussion, and which the teacher recognizes may need to be considered. No tentative answers are included because they are not needed, for the teacher is exploring the opinions of the girls hoping to direct them toward an interest in wholesome comradely friendship between them and their friends. Her planned questions are thought-provoking. She lists no generalizations or conclusions the class might be expected to develop.

The lesson plans given on the foregoing pages have not been included here because they are examples of perfect plans—there is no such thing. Each one was used more or less successfully. They should not be copied blindly either in form or content, because people do not think and plan alike. The form, completeness, length, or brevity will depend on you, your experience, and your way of doing things. Perhaps you will need rather extensive written plans at first; perhaps very sketchy written ones but detailed mental ones. A successful experienced teacher carries much of her planning in her mind, but she *plans* and *plans consistently* and *definitely*. The efficient teacher also usually puts some of her plans on paper and thus frees her mind for other things.

PROBLEMS

1. Observe a group discussion in a class, or perhaps in some club organization. Write out what you think might have been the leader's plan.
2. Select some pertinent campus problem in which your class group will be interested. Write out a plan for leading the group to discuss the problem thoroughly.

3. Using the parallel column scheme suggested in this chapter, plan a demonstration suitable to use for a boys' class.
4. Write a plan for leading a class to plan a trip to a local store for some purpose.
5. Make a plan for developing interest in a class in improving the department which you hope that they might decide to undertake as a class project. Indicate what you would consider necessary to write down.
6. Make a plan by which you may expect to lead your class to plan tentatively their goals for some unit.

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~ CHAPTER XV ~

Evaluation in Homemaking Education

Evaluation is a term much used in educational circles. Administrators evaluate the success of teachers and also the success of the whole school program. Teachers evaluate pupil development and also their own success as teachers. Pupils evaluate their achievement and the work of their teachers. Parents, too, evaluate their children's progress in school and the success of the total school program.

Essentially, to evaluate simply means to set a value on. As used in this chapter it refers to the whole process of collecting evidence of learning, or lack of it, weighing the evidence carefully, and arriving at a judgment of the extent and value of the learning that has taken place. This process helps the teacher and pupils answer the question, How well have we accomplished what we set out to accomplish?

One cannot truly teach without evaluation; for through it one determines how to guide pupil development. It is inextricably bound up with the teacher's daily and hourly decisions about what and how to teach. It is an integral part of the total learning situation.

Evaluation is both continuous, as in the daily and hourly judgments the teacher makes, and intermittent, as when the teacher and pupils take time for an inventory of progress by means of a test or some other device. Both continuous and

intermittent evaluation are needed in order to guide pupil growth.

PURPOSES OF EVALUATION

A teacher uses evaluation for purposes of appraising the work of her pupils or encouraging them to judge their own progress, and to determine the effectiveness of her teaching.

In relation to the pupils she uses evaluation to:

1. Determine the standing of a pupil or group of pupils relative to some objective or objectives at some particular moment.
2. Diagnose the strengths and weaknesses of an individual pupil as a basis for giving him guidance.
3. Determine the development pupils have made toward the objectives during some period of time, say a month or semester.
4. Stimulate pupils to further learning based on self-evaluation.

For herself she uses evaluation to:

1. Appraise the effectiveness of a particular teaching method she has used.
2. Appraise the effectiveness of her teaching as a whole.

Many procedures and many devices or instruments are used in evaluation. The procedures include such things as observing a pupil's performance in class, noting his behavior when out of school, talking to his parents about his progress as shown by what he does at home, examining and comparing reports included in cumulative records kept by the school, and giving tests. The devices or instruments are all the anecdotal records, records of the school, tests, progress charts, rating scales, or score cards the teacher employs. Different evaluation procedures or different devices may be used for the same purpose, or the same procedures or devices may be used for several purposes. For example, to determine the ability of pupils to apply principles to new situations a

teacher may give an objective test or a practical test, or may observe how pupils respond to questions during class discussion. To illustrate that the same instrument may be used for more than one purpose, let us assume that a group seems to understand the principles of egg cookery as they are applied in making baked custard and a puffy omelet, but have never made a soufflé. You want to appraise their ability to apply the principles in other situations. So you give them a test composed of a list of ingredients in the right proportions for a soufflé. They are to write the directions for making the soufflé and give the reasons for their choice of the procedure they give. When you analyze the answers they have given to this test you should be able to tell how many of the group can apply the principles. Examination of each pupil's paper will help you to diagnose whether the pupil who does not apply the principles can state them but not apply them, or does not even know them. If each pupil examines her own paper you are using the device for self-rating by students. The results of the test will also show you how effectively you have taught.

PRINCIPLES OF EVALUATION

Evaluation is based on objectives. Since education is a process concerned with pupil growth as evidenced by change in their behavior, the results of teaching can only be evaluated fairly by determining the amount and kind of change which has occurred. *Any estimation of the results of teaching should, therefore, be made in terms of those objectives of pupil achievement toward which you and your pupils are working.* For example, if one objective is to develop increased interest in the home, ways should be found to gauge any change in interest that may have taken place. If another objective is a better standard of workmanship, then in the evaluation means should be used to find evidence of any

change in their standards of workmanship. If ability to perform homemaking tasks is an objective, then evidence should be sought of any change that has occurred in manipulative or managerial skills used in homemaking tasks.

Evidence of the degree to which all objectives have been attained should be sought in the evaluation process. It is not a true appraisal of the progress that has taken place if only one or two objectives are considered. Consequently, even though you find it much harder to appraise pupil development toward some objectives than toward others, you should use every means you can to get evidence about the attainment of *all* the objectives.

For objectives dealing with intangible kinds of development, such as greater interest in homemaking, valid evidence can only be collected after considerable time has passed. You may have to be content at a given moment with such scraps of evidence as you can observe in day-to-day contacts throughout the year. *Evaluation is not complete unless you use all the evidence you can get of pupil growth toward all your selected objectives, even these intangible ones.*

Objective and subjective evaluation is needed. Much effort has been expended by teachers and others to develop tests and other devices for measuring the learning of pupils so that the personal judgment of the teacher will be minimized. For this purpose many types of so-called objective or short-answer tests have been devised. It is true that a teacher's judgment is affected by such things as health, fatigue, and clashes between her personality and those of her pupils. But objective tests do not rule out all of the teacher's judgment. Even in the short-answer tests like true-false, multiple-choice, or matching tests, the teacher's judgment is used when she selects the items to be included in the test and decides what is the right answer for each. Also her judgment is used when she decides which form of short-answer test to construct.

Obviously any appropriate device for use in evaluation that can minimize personal opinion of the scorer is preferable to those that are greatly affected by personal opinion. It is true that personal opinion is somewhat variable; but it should be kept in mind that the judgment of an experienced teacher is a trained judgment and is reasonably reliable and accurate. Also it is important to remember that subjective appraisal of pupil development toward some important goals may be of more value than objective measurement of growth toward unimportant goals. Of this Zachry has said:¹

Through observing the student in a situation (and especially if his duties allow time for recording such observation) the teacher comes to know more and more of the young person's attitudes to work and to recreation, to people and to himself. He slowly rounds out a concept of the adolescent's world and the way in which he uses it. That there is a subjective element in such observation goes without saying. Yet, if he approaches his task as an educator his perspective—while remaining his own—is not likely to be skewed.

In homemaking there are many opportunities to collect subjective evidence of pupils' development, such as watching them work in the laboratory or take part in home-economics club activities under your supervision. Much of the evidence you collect in this way is more valid evidence of development than any kind of test you could devise. *Both objective and subjective methods should be used to collect evidence of changes in behavior.*

Evaluation planned to accompany learning. Since continuous evaluation is necessary to satisfactory guidance of pupils, it is evident that it needs to be planned at the same time that methods of teaching, the visual aids, and the class management are planned.

¹ Caroline B. Zachry, in collaboration with Margaret Lighty, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence*, application of the Study of Adolescents, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, Progressive Education Association (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940), p. 16.

In speaking of the relation of tests to teaching, one writer has said,²

A test is not an accessory to be tacked on in the middle or end of a course. It is a "built in" feature planned when the course is planned.

Many curriculum guides now include suggestions for evaluation with each unit, and thus make it evident that teaching and evaluation go hand in hand. Tests and all other devices for obtaining evidence need to be planned for at the beginning of a unit and also day by day as the teaching is planned. *Evaluation should be planned when teaching is planned.*

Co-operative evaluation is important. If you believe that pupils should share in selecting the objectives toward which you and they will work, you undoubtedly will believe also that they should share in evaluating their progress toward those objectives. They are likely to make sincere efforts to progress if they themselves evaluate their achievement. If they can feel satisfaction from recognizing their progress, they may be stimulated to further effort. So there will often be times when you and the pupils will share the evaluation process. This does not mean that all your evaluation will be done together.

It may be desirable for you to make an independent evaluation at some stages in the work or at some stages in pupil development in order to plan the next steps in your guidance of this development. At other times you will take major responsibility but may bring pupils and perhaps parents into the evaluation process. *Co-operative evaluation helps pupils to recognize their progress and their need for further learning.*

² *Teacher's Letter* (Washington, D.C., Arthur C. Croft Publications, Dupont Circle Building, September 20, 1952).

DEVICES FOR EVALUATION

Few evaluation devices in the field of homemaking education can be purchased and used by a teacher without adaptation. Some self-evaluation devices for pupils that have been published have been found useful by teachers for certain situations. Most of the tests that are available are better suited to use as *pre-tests or as a basis for class discussion of pupil needs* rather than for measuring pupil development. To date, such tests seem not to be sufficiently refined to detect small changes in the pupil. Also most of them are tests of information possessed by the pupil and so have limited usefulness.

Several attempts have been made to work out standardized tests in home economics—that is, tests which, having been given to large numbers of girls, graded, and carefully analyzed, might be regarded as normal or standard measurements for what a class of a certain age and grade level might be expected to know. When we consider that home economics is quite unstandardized in organization, sequence of units, content of specific units, and even in objectives, we realize that such a standardization of tests is very difficult and perhaps inadvisable. Since home economics is such a personal subject, and teachers are attempting more and more to adapt their teaching to the particular needs of the girls in their classes, it would seem that standardized tests may have but little use in this field.

Educators interested in constructing testing devices for use in other fields have been able to construct some tests that they consider satisfactory for measuring development of pupils toward such objectives as ability to think logically, ability to apply facts and principles, and ability to generalize. The same pattern used in these tests can be followed by a homemaking teacher using the problems, facts, and principles selected from her field. No two classes, however, will

study exactly the same generalizations or problems. And, if the test is to be a fair evaluation of the pupils' learning, it should call only for facts and principles they should presumably know. Consequently, the average teacher will still have to rely upon the tests she herself constructs.

There are many types of tests and other devices a teacher may prepare and use. She may construct problem tests, using either short-answer or essay form, or practical performance tests. She may also devise ways to keep anecdotal records of observed behavior and forms for cumulative records to be kept in her own department. She may with her class develop score cards, rating scales, or progress charts. Each of these evaluation devices has a place, but it must be left to the individual teacher to select whatever means of appraising pupil growth seem best to fit her situation. Many of the important objectives of homemaking have to do with human relationships and therefore involve situations in which the right or best procedure at one time may be a poor procedure at another. There are few permanently right answers in home economics, and measurement of progress cannot be in terms of absolutely right or entirely wrong, but in terms of what is best for a particular situation. Likewise, evaluation devices must be chosen as the best for the particular situation. The individual teacher's judgment is her best guide.

Written problem tests. The only way to test a girl's ability to think and reason, and to do original planning, is to have her solve problems. The written problem test may be either essay or short-answer in type. The essay type is easier for the teacher to state than is the short-answer type, but much more difficult to evaluate afterwards, because it is very natural to allow the value of one part of the test to overbalance another or to let judgment be influenced by other factors.

Problem tests call for the *use* of facts and principles, but

put emphasis on thinking and reasoning. To be a true test, of course, each problem used must be a new problem not previously encountered, but for the solution of which needed facts and principles are presumably known.

Problems included may be either those calling for judgment or for planning. Care should be taken to state them clearly and definitely. All the suggestions given in Chapter VIII for stating problems for discussion apply to stating problems for the written problem test.

A few questions which use visual aids have been taken from a written problem test of the essay type, and are given below.

PROBLEMS TO TEST JUDGMENT IN THE USE OF ART PRINCIPLES

1. Alice is going to wear this dress to a party. Which of these necklaces on the table do you think would be the most appropriate one for her to wear? Why? (The dress and necklaces are displayed in the room. Alice is known.)

2. From these colored papers select a good color scheme for a dress for Jane. Why did you select and combine them as you did? (Colored papers are supplied for this problem. Jane is known.)

3. I have on the board a sketch of the arrangement of a girl's room including the doors and windows. Make a small sketch of the room on your paper, rearranging the furniture in the best possible way. Give reasons for your arrangement.

4. Here are several pictures of flower arrangements. Which would you use for a lunch table? Why? (The pictures are numbered for convenient reference.)

A written problem test may be made more nearly objective if the problem situation is stated, four or five possible solutions are given, and a number of reasons for choosing these solutions are listed. The pupil is asked to mark the solution to the problem that she would accept as best and to mark all the reasons that she believes are good ones for her selection. By this procedure the student's reasoning and her knowledge of facts and principles may both be measured

in a relatively short time. This is an easy type of test to score but a difficult type to prepare. The steps in preparation are as follows:

1. Select the facts and principles or generalizations you believe are important and which are supposed to be known by the students.

2. Set up a new but true-to-life and worth-while problem to which the principles and facts listed apply. Describe the situation so that you may ask what will happen or what should be done.

3. State some plausible answers or conclusions.

4. Make a list of reasons for the answers. These should include some that are adequate and sound for each suitable conclusion, some that are irrelevant, some that are false statements, some that are only partly true, and some that just repeat the conclusion.

5. Check through all the good reasons to make sure you have taught all the principles and facts involved and restate the problem, if its solution calls for some material which has not been taught.

6. Arrange the test with the problem first, the directions next, the conclusions following, and the reasons last, the latter in scrambled order of good and poor.

7. Leave blanks before each conclusion and each reason.

An example taken from a short-answer problem test is given below.*

EXCERPTS FROM A TEST OF ABILITY TO APPLY GENERALIZATIONS IN THE AREA OF PERSONAL AND FAMILY PROBLEMS

Directions: Read each problem carefully, then mark (x) in the space in front of the letter that indicates the solution you think best for the problem. Also mark (x) before each reason which explains your choice of this solution.

* Hester Chadderdon and others, *Development of Paper-and-Pencil Tests to Evaluate the Ability to Apply Generalizations in Home Economics* (Des Moines, Iowa, Board for Vocational Education, 1947), p. 40. Out of print.

One of Dorothy Cline's serious problems is what time to get home from a date on week-ends. Dorothy's friends are allowed to stay out until twelve, but Mrs. Cline thinks that is too late for a senior high school girl and that eleven-thirty is late enough. What would you suggest that they do about this?

Which solution do you believe to be the best?

- ___A. Dorothy should do as her mother wishes.
- x___B. Dorothy and her parents should discuss the situation and try to reach a compromise.
- ___C. Dorothy should let her mother and father decide.
- ___D. Dorothy should insist that she be allowed to stay out as late as the other girls.

Which of these reasons explains the solution you chose?

- ___1. Dorothy is young and her mother is insisting on eleven-thirty for Dorothy's own good.
- ___2. If the crowd Dorothy goes with stays out later than she can, she will not be very popular with them.
- x___3. Dorothy is old enough to help make this decision.
- ___4. Her mother and father know what is best for Dorothy.
- ___5. If she cannot stay out later, she might lose her boy friends.
- ___6. Parents are responsible if their children get into trouble so they should decide how late the children stay out.
- x___7. Dorothy should help decide since learning to make decisions is part of growing up.
- ___8. Dorothy is too young to know what is good for her

PRACTICAL PROBLEM TESTS

When the problem test is of the practical type, each girl makes a plan and carries it out. This type of test involves activity and can test for managerial and manipulative ability as well as for judgment. It may also show evidence of ability to carry on satisfactory relationships with other people.

When giving a practical test to any except a small class, you may encounter difficult management problems. For example, if there are only five sewing-machines, only five girls can take a sewing-machine test at one time. This may be overcome by giving the test during regular laboratory work, by having one girl at a time leave her work when her turn

comes to take the test. In giving a meal test in one day, it will be necessary to have equipment for serving as many meals at once as there are groups of girls. The class, however, may be divided into several small groups, each taking the test on different days while the rest of the class is working on other problems. In this case the details of the test will have to be modified for each group. A score card, or rating scale, makes the grading slightly more objective than would be likely to result from merely assigning a general grade. Two examples of problems taken from practical tests are given.

PROBLEMS FROM A PRACTICAL TEST IN FIRST AID

1. Jack in first grade has cut his thumb deeply across the face of it. It is bleeding profusely. Select the necessary articles from the first aid kit and demonstrate how you would fix it for him as it should be done.
2. Suppose a girl has just fainted. Demonstrate the proper treatment.

SCORE CARD DEVISED BY THE CLASS TO RATE EACH GIRL'S PERFORMANCE

Selected the right articles to fit the case	30
Went ahead without hesitation and gave the treatment .10	
Used the best method of applying the treatment	30
Finished the job correctly	30
	<hr/> 100

PRACTICAL TEST IN FOODS

You will find on the supply table a number of foods, a list of which is on the blackboard. From these each group is to prepare a supper for four high school girls. Each group will then eat its own meal and clean up afterward. If you plan a menu and, upon getting your supplies, find that the particular food which you planned to use has all been used by another group, you will need to revise your menu. Your ability to do this will be considered in your score. You will work in your usual family groups, and yourselves assign your tasks in connection with this meal. You will be judged according to the score card below, which your class planned for this use.

Score Card for the Problem

Menu	15
Management	20
Table setting	10
Orderliness of work	10
Service and manners	15
Cleaning up	10
Adaptability	10
Success of dishes prepared	10
	<hr/> 100

Short-answer information tests. Although acquisition of information is not to be thought of as an objective, it is often a tool in achieving the goal sought. For example, one must be informed about vacuum cleaners and their care to be able to care for them. Lack of necessary information may be a cause of failure to progress; therefore information tests may be used at times to diagnose difficulties. Objective or short-answer information tests are of several different types; some of those commonly used are the true-false, multiple-response, completion, and matching tests.

The true-false test may be a guessing contest in which there is a fifty-fifty chance that the guess is correct. It is therefore the least desirable of all because even one who had not taken the course could, by the law of chance, answer some questions correctly. The true-false test may be scored by counting the number of correct answers, if the pupils have been carefully warned against guessing, or—partly to overcome the error from possible guessing—the number of wrong responses may be subtracted from the number of right responses to obtain the total score. If carefully made, the true-false test is a means of quick testing for a large number of facts and may sometimes be desirable. In making such a test it is very important that each statement is clear, contains but one idea, is not ambiguous, and is not obviously true or false. Only important items of information should be included.

The multiple-response test may give several possible answers from which the student may be asked to choose one or more correct statements, words, or phrases. All responses included in the test should be sensible and not obviously impossible, if the student is to really show what he knows. If the pupil is asked to choose the best answer of several, all of which are nearly true, this type of test calls for some judgment as well as knowledge of facts.

The completion test provides blanks that are to be filled in to complete the statements given. This type of test is more difficult than the type in which the pupil has but to recognize a correct answer, since in the completion of the statement the pupil must give the *correct* word or phrase to fill the blank. The completion test is also less objective, since the judgment of the scorer is involved in deciding whether or not the pupil has filled the blanks in an acceptable manner. The completion test can be made more nearly objective if a list of possible words or phrases for each blank accompanies the test. If such a list of words and phrases is provided, the test takes on the form of the matching test. It is difficult to construct such questions so that they call for thought rather than memorization of words and phrases.

The matching test is a recognition test in which the pupil must associate ideas with their use. This is a truer test of information if more points are placed in one column than in the other, so that even with the last item or two the pupil is still required to make a decision and may not pair up the columns as one fits pieces in a puzzle. This type of test is effective for testing meanings of words and phrases or for testing functional vocabulary such as, the names of working parts of the sewing machine. It is also useful in testing whether pupils recognize relationships among ideas.

Objective tests have some advantages. They can be given quickly, and yet by using a large number of questions they can test the acquisition of a great quantity of information.

They save the student much writing, and they are easily and quickly scored. Pupils themselves may score them as accurately as you do. Objective tests also have serious disadvantages. It takes longer to prepare these short-answer tests than it does to formulate questions of the essay type, and you will discover that it is difficult to avoid obvious statements, or questions that permit two possible answers instead of but one. A more serious drawback to use of these tests is that they usually separate knowledge from its use and tend to make information seem an objective in teaching. You can, however, save some time and improve the quality of such examinations by keeping your best questions, thus making a collection of good items from which to select for future tests.

Some suggestions for constructing short-answer tests are given here for those who desire to use them. References at the end of the chapter may be consulted if further help with the technique of preparing such tests is desired.

When making short-answer tests:

1. Include only important items which pupils should know as a result of their study.
2. Include items to test the attainment of each objective in proportion to its importance.
3. Include enough items to furnish a fair sample of what the student may be expected to know and understand.
4. Be sure statements are clear, definite, and have but one meaning.
5. Avoid including clues to the answer in statements used.
6. Use terms with which the students are familiar but not "pat" phrases or exact phrases as used in a text or in class, unless the test is one of vocabulary.
7. In true-false tests avoid the use of false statements which are false only because of the inclusion of such words as *all*, *only*, or *always*.

8. Use items that are independent of each other so that one does not supply a clue for answering another.
9. Arrange all items of one form together in the test.
10. Use a limited number of different forms for test items in any one test.
11. Be sure directions for marking are clear and adequate.
12. Simplify the mechanics of marking as much as possible.
13. Arrange space for answers conveniently, and see that it is adequate.
14. Use only that number of items which the majority of the students can finish in the time allowed.
15. Provide enough copies so each pupil may have his own.

Other devices for appraising information possessed by pupils. It is more important to know whether a student can use information than it is to know that he is informed. More or less subjective means of testing for the possession of information through ability to use it are: (1) essay-type tests calling for written solutions to problems; (2) oral tests; (3) recorded observations of the student's use of information in solving real-life problems at school and at home; and (4) observed use of information in practical test situations arranged at schools. Each has its place in an evaluation program.

The essay-type test has been most commonly used for many years to discover the information students possessed. Such tests call for ability to recall information, to organize material, and to use vocabulary well. If these are considered objectives of the course, an essay test should be scored for these qualities as well as for the ability to use information or to apply principles for which the test may have been devised. Oral tests are like essay tests except that the student is not called upon to write and is not able to read and correct the statement he has formulated.

The teacher's observation of the way the pupil meets a real-life situation may also furnish evidence of the possession and ability to use necessary information. These are, of course, subjective but very useful means of evaluation.

Anecdotal records. The anecdotal record is a record of observations that the teacher makes of the behavior of the student in some situation, without any interpretation or explanation. Such a record is used whenever the behavior, in the teacher's judgment, might be significant evidence of change with respect to objectives for which other types of evidence are difficult to secure. *Evidences of self-direction, tolerance, consideration of the welfare of others, independence in thought and action, and other qualities of personality may be obtained in this way. Records need not be kept as a matter of routine for all students, although they might be productive of increased understanding, but they are especially useful in particular cases. If some student is unusually hard to understand or seems to need very constant guidance, records of this type may be of great value. By studying at intervals the accumulated anecdotes one is able to see the behavior over a span of time and in a variety of situations rather than to recall only the more vivid or most recent episodes.*

Anecdotal records may be kept on cards, on sheets of paper, or on prepared forms in individual student folders. They may be recorded intermittently whenever behavior seems significant of growth toward some desired objective or the reverse.

The key to success in keeping anecdotal records lies in making them as nearly like clear-cut word pictures of behavior as possible, and in securing a large enough collection so that the sample is adequate to show a good cross-section of the pupil's behavior. A teacher who was watching for growth in independence of one pupil made an anecdotal record like the following. Notice that there is no interpreta-

tion or statement of attitudes, only statements of what the pupil did and said.

October 10th

Marilyn asked me to tell her what to do next, each time she had to start a new part on her pajama blouse today.

October 31st

Marilyn helped Ada with the bobbin of her machine today when the thread kept breaking.

November 10th

Joan, Marilyn, and Esther were preparing soup for the hot lunch. Marilyn fluttered around and talked most of the time while the other two did the work.

November 23rd

Marilyn came in before school today and asked if she could deliver the basket we are preparing for the McNary family for Thanksgiving. She said she knew the little boy who was in the Sunday-school group she teaches, and she'd like to go to see the family.

November 25th

Marilyn went with two others to take the basket. When she returned, she told me how terribly poor they were and was most upset because "the floor was bare and had big cracks and the baby was so dirty and its little hands all sore." She wanted to know if the girls in our class could get together some rags and make a rag rug for the McNary family.

December 10th

Marilyn came in before school with three balls of rags her mother had given her. She had been to see Mrs. H. who weaves rugs to find out how many rags would be needed and how much it would cost to weave the rug. Mrs. H. gave her a price per yard. Marilyn wanted me to help her figure how many yards it would take.

December 20th

Miss S. told me today Marilyn would not help with the Christmas program because "she was afraid to get up before people."

Even with the best of intentions anecdotal records are likely to be highly subjective. They are time-consuming and difficult to collect, but they do seem to provide evidences of behavior changes and may be used in conjunction with other records to evaluate pupil growth. They also provide material for pupil-teacher conferences or parent-teacher conferences and thus have some guidance value.

Cumulative records as a device for evaluation. The accumulation of all the various types of information that one is able to secure about a pupil during the year is sometimes used to provide material from which judgments can be made of the nature and degree of change in a pupil's behavior over a period of time. Such material can also be used to determine his standing at a particular moment. By comparing from time to time the facts available in the records a teacher can make a general estimate of a pupil's achievement. For this purpose the cumulative records should include test results of any type, anecdotal records, personal data sheets or questionnaires filled out by the pupil, home-project reports, and any other relevant material. Such records should be *strictly confidential*. They must be kept and used with judgment, for pupils do change, do increase in maturity, do leave behind them some of the mistakes or foolish things that are better forgotten by everyone concerned. It is unfortunate, therefore, to have in the file a record of behavior which is outgrown. For this reason there is serious question in the minds of many teachers concerning the advisability of keeping confidential records of the anecdotal variety from year to year and passing them on to new teachers. Records of actual home activities carried on, of home projects completed, of class projects pursued, of extra-class activities in the school, you may safely keep from year to year and you will find they are valuable for guidance. Those of a more subjective nature are best removed from your file at the end of the year. You may wish to make and file a summary of achievement in their place.

A summary record of each student and periodic reports of the progress she has made are especially helpful to the teacher for personal guidance. You can keep a sheet for each girl in her folder and, at times when you review the records, a mark of progress can be made. N, no progress; L, little; S, some; M, much, may be the symbols used.

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Score cards. Every girl in home economics is familiar with score cards and their use, for they have been universally employed in class, in demonstration work, and at exhibits and fairs to evaluate clothing and foods products. You will have to decide whether to use a standard score card made out by experienced people and widely accepted, or to have your class make its own.

Check sheets. Check sheets are devices often used by pupils for self-analysis or by teacher and pupils to determine progress toward some objective. An example of a check sheet for self-analysis of work habits in a food laboratory is given below.

EVALUATION OF LABORATORY WORK

I: (Name of Pupil)	Yes	No
1. Washed hands before starting work.	—	—
2. Dressed properly.	—	—
3. Saved steps.	—	—
4. Talked quietly.	—	—
5. Talked little.	—	—
6. Wasted little time.	—	—
7. Did my share of work.	—	—
8. Washed dishes in proper order.	—	—
9. Wrapped garbage.	—	—
10. Put dishes and utensils away in proper places.	—	—
11. Swept unit kitchen.	—	—
12. Left unit kitchen clean and in order.	—	—

When check sheets are used to determine progress they are checked repeatedly over a period of time. An illustration is given below of such a device which each member of a class kept for herself when trying to improve personal grooming. The girls worked out this list of items each was to watch or do every day. Columns for daily check marks were added in which the girls were to mark daily for two weeks. The teacher also observed the girls and recorded her observation under each girl's name once a week on a check sheet of a similar nature. This check sheet is also given here. (See page 305.)

Check sheets have value in encouraging pupils to make improvements, but they have some limitations also. They may stimulate too much competition and lead to dishonesty. Also, if they are used in the same way repeatedly, the pupils may grow weary of them. When used with judgment and imagination they serve a useful purpose.

tests are used by some teachers for every unit of work, under the plan of "test, teach, and test again." If a pre-test is used, the class may set its own objectives following the test and may check its own progress toward its goals.

In making such tests it is important that they be sufficiently comprehensive to be truly exploratory, that they test for all objectives of the proposed unit of learning, and that they be so arranged and so given that they will arouse interest and help pupils to realize what they may get from the experiences to come.

EVALUATION AND GRADING

So long as schools use grades as the measure of pupil achievement, teachers will be concerned with the problem of grading. Experience does not ease the strain of the recurrent grade period. Even in the school which proclaims that *it has done away with grades and definite report periods*, the teacher is still faced with having to make some kind of report of the weaknesses and strengths of pupils. Although evaluation is a continuous process, grading is a periodic attempt to set an estimate in some short and concise terms on what has been accomplished or upon the status of pupil growth. Instruments of evaluation, old and new, are used to help the teacher arrive at the grade.

Grading is one of the evils growing out of mass education. It has developed from and fosters competition; for in whatever system of symbols the grades are stated there is always the idea of ranking, of placing students along a continuous line or scale with the best at one end of the scale and the poorest at the other. With that kind of scheme as a part of the school, grades rather than personal development may become the pupil's goal, and competition to win good grades becomes the major activity of many pupils. Pupils, parents, other people in the community are always asking, "What

to be considered and the relative value of each, and they have to judge each part of the garment in comparison with other parts. For example, is it more important that the construction work be beautifully done or that the material be well chosen; that the design be suitable or that the fit be good? The class may receive more value from deciding the answers to these questions and setting their own relative values than from using the score card of another person or group, although the one made by the class be far from perfect, for in making its own score the class will grow in judgment and independence of thinking.

Rating scales. Rating scales differ from score cards in that each point is not given a relative value but all points are rated on the basis of a scale of values. Frequently each level of quality is described with a few concise phrases to help in determining the rating. The score card shown for the evaluation of the practical test in meal preparation (page 297) may be made into a rating scale. A rating of 5 for *excellent*, 4 for *good*, 3 for *average*, is often used. Instead of numbers the words may be used.

EXPLORATORY TESTS

Tests may be used for exploratory purposes as well as for measuring results; that is, they may be given to find out what the pupils know before beginning a unit and to stimulate interests. If the same test is repeated at the end of the unit, the differences between the results of the first and second testing may be used as a measure of progress.

The exploratory or pre-test is scored and the results recorded only if a similar test is to be used later to measure progress; but the girls are assured in advance that their scores in the preliminary test do not affect their grades for the unit of work. With the results of this test you and your class have a starting point for planning the unit. Exploratory

must be considered together when determining the grade to be given.

PROBLEMS

1. Examine some essay-type tests that teachers have used in home-making classes. Analyze them to find whether they have tested the pupils' knowledge of subject matter, their ability to use subject matter in solving problems, or some other kind of behavior.

2. Prepare an objective examination to test ability to use information in new situations in some phase of home life with which a tenth-grade group might be expected to be concerned. Have your classmates or friends judge the examination you have prepared according to the criteria given in this chapter for making objective tests.

3. State the kinds of evidence you would try to secure to measure progress toward the following objectives:

a. Some understanding of normal behavior for children two or three years of age.

b. Ability to assist with the care and guidance of such children.

c. A sympathetic understanding and enjoyment of children.

4. Take one or two objectives for one unit of work being studied by a class with which you can have some contact. List all the expected behavior involved in each objective. Then list the kinds of situations in which this expected behavior might take place and contrive ways to collect evidence that the expected behavior does or does not take place. To what extent is it necessary to use devices other than tests to secure the evidence of change in behavior for which you are looking?

5. These typed instructions for a practical test in foods were handed to a class. Improve and rewrite them:

Plan, prepare and serve a high-school girl's breakfast from the food found on the supply table. Work in groups of two. You have one hour and fifteen minutes to plan, prepare, serve, and clean up.

You will be graded on:

a. Your ability to plan your menu

b. Your management of time and work

c. Preparation of foods

d. Condition of your work center

e. Quietness, quickness, and independence with which you work

f. Attractiveness of your table

g. Your table service and manners

h. Cleanliness of your aprons

i. Your thoroughness in cleaning up

6. Plan a practical testing situation for a specific class or group in some phase of homemaking.

grade did you make?" thereby re-emphasizing the importance of grades as a goal of endeavor. Ideally, we believe that boys and girls should study for the sake of learning; and under superior teachers this happens. Unfortunately, however, in the average situation, no matter how much emphasis is put upon development in socially desirable directions, wherever grades are given, grades become the goal to be achieved. This must be recognized, and everything possible done to find a more effective stimulus to further learning and a more adequate means of indicating progress.

Basis for grading. Teachers, especially beginning teachers, frequently ask: "How shall we grade? Shall we grade on quality of products and workmanship or on improvement during the period? Shall we set a grade on home experiences separate from class work? Shall we consider attitude and effort in estimating a grade?" The answer is: "Grade on that for which you are teaching." What has been the growth toward all the objectives you and your class are striving for?

If a single grade must be given, it should represent a composite of many evaluations of progress toward all your objectives. If your aim is increase in skill in clothing construction, then the grade on the report card should represent the girl's increased ability to make garments. If you are also teaching to develop ability to select suitable materials for garments, then you will consider her improvement in judgment in selecting materials when giving her a grade. If you are also attempting to develop independence in thinking and acting, consideration for others, and interest in sharing in home responsibility, you should in addition consider the girl's improvement in these things. If ability to think through and solve problems is also your objective, the grade should include recognition of observed increase in this ability. Evidences of various kinds of progress may be collected by use of a variety of evaluation procedures and all

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7. Plan some workable, not too laborious, way to keep a record of the observed behavior of students in class or out-of-class situations, which would be useful for evaluating the growth the students are making toward an objective of personal development, such as, becoming self-directive or co-operative or thoughtful of others.

8. Discuss with one high-school homemaking teacher the objectives she is working for with one of her classes and the kinds of evidence she is trying to collect of their progress toward them. Evaluate her procedure. In your judgment, are her procedures adequate for her purposes?

9. A student teacher wrote the following account of how she measured the results of her teaching of an apron unit. Give your judgment concerning the fairness and adequacy of her method of evaluating results.

- a. A written test was given on the standards used in selecting apron materials and styles.
- b. A score was used to grade the girls once a week. It included: attention, 20; attitude, 20; contribution to class, 40; technique, 20.
- c. After the aprons were completed, we had a judgment lesson. It consisted of setting up standards for style, materials, construction, and finishing of aprons. Charts were then made from the list, and every girl graded her own apron and all the others. I then compared their charts and guided them on their judgment.
- d. I then graded the aprons according to the standards set up. I took into consideration the amount of experience each girl had had and the progress she made.

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feel themselves accepted in a social group. This statement implies that many and varied social outlets should exist in the school as well as in out-of-school organizations. To these social and other extra-class activities, the homemaking teacher has much to contribute. One responsibility which is usually hers is acting as adviser to the local chapter of Future Homemakers of America or of New Homemakers of America.

Organization. Future Homemakers of America and New Homemakers of America are national organizations composed of chapters in states and territories which hold charters from the national associations. (New Homemakers of America chapters are only in schools for Negroes in the seventeen states which have separate schools for Negroes.) Local chapters in high schools in the various states are combined into state organizations.

Each national association has its own constitution, its own officers, its own purposes, creed, motto, rituals, color, flower, insignia, and publications. Each has Degrees of Achievement with standards and insignia for those Degrees. Membership in the Associations is made up of girls and boys in high school who have taken or are taking homemaking.

National and state organizations and also local chapters have advisers. You as a homemaking teacher will probably be an adviser of a local chapter; therefore you will need to know much more about the association than can be explained here. Sources for the information you will need may be the official guides, advisers' handbooks, bulletins, and newsletters issued by the national and state offices. Additional current information will be found in the two periodicals, *Teentimes* and *Chatterbox*.

Purposes and creeds. Both Future and New Homemakers of America have adopted purposes and creeds which embody high ideals for girls of America. The purposes form a basis for the programs of work which you will guide. They

~ CHAPTER XVI ~

Extra-Classroom Responsibilities

Extra-class activities are a recognized part of education and today are considered part of the school curriculum. A canvass of any group of homemaking teachers will show that each one is responsible for one or more activities, such as the Future Homemakers of America, exhibits, contests, banquets, programs, refreshments for meetings of various kinds, the school lunch, study-hall or homeroom duty, counseling, and co-operation with such general school movements as health campaigns or "Back-to-School Night." It is often by these extra-classroom activities that many people in the community and other teachers in a school system judge the teacher of homemaking. Several of these activities—clubs, exhibits, the school lunch, counseling, and interpretation of the homemaking program to the community through promotion and publicity—will be discussed in this chapter.

FUTURE HOMEMAKERS OF AMERICA

NEW HOMEMAKERS OF AMERICA

Club organizations offer experiences through which girls and boys will "learn through living" much that will be educative if guided well by club sponsors.

As has been pointed out before, boys and girls strongly desire to establish relationships with their fellows and to

will need to know the requirements and policies of the associations, state and national, and to keep in touch with state and national officers and advisers.

As an adviser, you will be responsible for making the club a success and for doing so through the girls, keeping yourself in the background. A story of the meetings of two clubs will illustrate the meaning of this responsibility.

Two clubs in the same area of a state were planning to attend the same district conference. Each club met during the noon hour to plan for the trip. It was necessary to decide when to start, who could furnish cars, how lunch should be provided, and so on. In school "X" the club president presided. *She led the discussion, turning to the teacher for help only when it was necessary. The teacher-adviser made suggestions only when she saw that something was being forgotten or when her mature judgment was needed. In school "Y" the teacher presided and led the discussion. When a committee was needed she turned to the president and said, "Miss President, will you appoint the committee?" The teacher in "Y" was quite unconscious of the opportunities for leadership, initiative, and responsibilities she was denying the girls. She was interested in making the trip a success and was afraid to let the group do its own planning under its own leadership. The teacher in "X" recognized her responsibility of acting in an advisory capacity and guided the girls, keeping herself in the background. She worked through the girls.*

As an adviser, you will help the club members and officers, plan the program for the year and programs for meetings. You will help them with their records and with their finances. You will help them evaluate what they do. Officers and members alike will need to learn parliamentary procedures, to select leaders because of ability rather than popularity. Committees will need help in making arrangements for social affairs, for local meetings, and for out-of-

are broad and include goals for personal development, for developing leadership in home and community life, for improving family living, for providing wholesome recreation, and for encouraging international good will.

The creeds embody the ideals of the associations, ideals of which homemaking teachers may be proud.

CREED—FUTURE HOMEMAKERS OF AMERICA

We are the Future Homemakers of America.
We face the future with warm courage,
And high hope.
For we have the clear consciousness of seeking
Old and precious values.
For we are the builders of homes,
Homes for America's future.
Homes where living will be the expression of everything
That is good and fair.
Home where truth and love and security and faith
Will be realities, not dreams.
We are the Future Homemakers of America.
We face the future with warm courage
And high hope.¹

CREED—NEW HOMEMAKERS OF AMERICA

We, the New Homemakers of America, believe that—
If there is kindness and truth in the heart,
There will be beauty in the spirit.
If there is beauty in the spirit,
There will be harmony and love in the home.
If there is harmony and love in the home,
There will be justice in the Nation.
If there is justice in the Nation,
There will be peace in the world.²

Club adviser. What will be your responsibilities in relation to a local chapter of F.H.A. or of N.H.A.? Of course you

¹ *Official Guide, Future Homemakers of America* (Washington, D.C., Future Homemakers of America, Inc., 1948), p. 7.

² *Official Guide, New Homemakers of America* (Washington, D.C., New Homemakers of America, 1950), p. 7.

spark, interest, and vitality to class work and adds importance to home experiences through the achievement degrees which are part of the program of these organizations. They say that it provides an excellent agency for interpreting the homemaking work to the school and the community. All of these values are of inestimable worth to the school, the homemaking program, and the girls in that school.

A functioning club. A functioning club will be one which is a pupil organization with you, the teacher and adviser, as a sort of balance wheel and source of help and encouragement. The girls can and should carry the responsibility. When they do so they will be interested and their plans and activities will be their own.

A functioning club will adopt a plan for the year, and then arrange each meeting and activity in accordance with that plan. Many clubs make plans for the year, and embody them in yearbooks, which they distribute to each member, as do organizations for adults. This yearbook usually contains the list of members, the program of meetings and activities with dates, lists of committees and their members, the motto, creed, maybe a club song, the club budget, and often the list of achievement items which lead to a degree.

A functioning club never has a program which has been "gotten up" at the last minute, nor one in which an air of frivolity is evident. Planning for the year will provide against such programs. A good program for a meeting will have a purpose, be interesting and instructive or challenging. It may sometimes be "just fun," but it will use the abilities of the girls themselves.

In a functioning club every girl in the group should have some responsibility during the year. We all know that every group has its leaders and its followers, or let us say co-operators, but co-operators need opportunity for development too. There will be something for every club member to do if you guide the organization well.

town trips to district or state meetings; giving this help will be your responsibility. It will be easier for you if you have on hand many suggestions for programs, for games and entertainment, and for ways to earn money.

As a teacher, you will carry the responsibility for co-ordinating the activities of the club with those of your classes, thus integrating club and class work. You will be the official "go-between" between the club, school administrators, and other teachers. You will draw upon mothers of members and leaders of the community for help when it is desirable. You will take advantage of opportunities which develop for interpreting the homemaking program to the community through club activities.

As a person, you will so plan your own personal activities and your school work that you will find convenient time for working with officers and committees in making and carrying out plans, as well as for attending meetings.

Values of F.H.A. and N.H.A. Most homemaking teachers recognize that in the F.H.A. and N.H.A. there are opportunities for the development of girls that are not present in classes. Girls can learn to function as good members of a community in the future by being good members in a club while in school. Numerous organizations exist in American communities. Learning how to work in the F.H.A. or N.H.A. will prepare girls for working later in adult organizations, thus applying the principle that we learn best in the type of situation in which that learning will later be used.

As club members and officers, girls may develop initiative, poise, social abilities, sense of responsibility, and leadership. They gain a feeling of belonging to an important group. Their interests are broadened. They experience team work and develop characteristics which are needed in a democratic society. They become conscious of and proud of their status as *builders of homes in America*.

Many teachers have reported that an active club gives

and N.H.A. give ideal opportunities for this. However, if these opportunities are to be utilized, you will guide the club as described previously: use co-operative planning; give support, advice, and help when needed; but so guide the girls that they themselves carry all of the responsibilities for club activities.

Time, thought, and energy on your part can be saved by planning so that club activities and your regular teaching program are correlated. Meeting parents through club activities may save some home visits. You think of both together and that saves thought in planning. You will be working with one whole program instead of working with two separate ones.

COUNSELING

Home-economics teachers share with other teachers both the responsibility and the opportunity for counseling pupils, who come to them with problems little and big. If you are known as a friendly person, pupils not in your classes as well as those who are will come with many kinds of questions. Perhaps a boy will drop into your class room to ask you what kind of corsage to buy for the girl he is taking to the senior prom. Or a girl may stop after class to ask if she can talk to you about a problem she is having with her boyfriend. The question asked by the boy is easy to deal with, but that of the girl may call for good use of counseling techniques.

If there is a member of the school staff who is trained to deal with personal problems, you can refer some pupils and some problems to this counselor. But whether there is a counselor or none, *you* will still have some counseling to do. Situations arise in every teacher's class room in which she herself must do some counseling. If you find a girl in your class weeping, you have to meet the situation immediately

Active clubs do many things—other than the regular programs—which create and maintain interest, frequently at a high pitch. They write for the local newspapers, write letters for the state newsletter or the state supervisor, or correspond with girls in distant states or in a foreign country. They give plays in assembly or elsewhere, compose songs, give pageants, give style shows, or earn money to buy luxuries for the club rooms or the homemaking department. They have mother-daughter teas or suppers, father-daughter dinners, hikes, costume parties, or parties for children. They may make garments for needy children, decorate the girls' rest room, act as first-aid nurses for the school, make and dress dolls for the community Christmas tree, or perform other social service activities. Any of these may be a means for developing personality and therefore may be of value in your homemaking program.

Integration of F.H.A. and N.H.A. and the total homemaking program. The total homemaking program aims to help all people in the community live better in the homes they have. F.H.A. and N.H.A. contribute to that total program. The activities of the organizations also contribute to the high-school part of that program. Class work, club activities, and home experiences should supplement and complement each other. Home experiences form part of the activities usually suggested for earning the Degrees of Achievement of the associations. They therefore contribute to the associations, and the associations in turn stimulate home projects.

If club activities and class activities are both planned with integration in mind, they can be correlated. For instance, in one school improvement of manners and ability to be at ease on social occasions were accepted as goals for the year. Club and class activities, and home experiences were planned accordingly.

One of the goals in homemaking education is to develop independence, self-confidence, and leadership in girls. F.H.A.

velopment as they grow up, manners to use on some social occasion, friction among classmates, and troubles of all kinds with their friends or family.

Problems referred by others. Other persons than your pupils may bring you problems of the types indicated above which will call for some counseling on your part. A mother may tell you of difficulties she is having with a son or daughter in your class and ask for your help. Other teachers or the school administrator may bring you problems they are having with pupils in your class that they believe you can help solve. Other pupils may ask you to advise a boy or girl about such things as personal grooming or manners. All kinds of problems, therefore, come to the homemaking teacher from a variety of sources.

When do you counsel? When will you do this counseling? Sometimes in the hall, when a pupil stops to talk for a few moments, you will counsel on some small problem. Between classes, pupils may stop at your desk, perhaps to consult you about some social problem. While on a field trip, visiting a home, or chaperoning a party that the Future Homemakers are giving for the Future Farmers, you may find you are being called on for advice.

If the problem, however, is a rather large one, and especially if it involves emotions that the pupil needs time to straighten out, you will want to arrange for a conference when you will not be interrupted. Time for conferences is extremely important for adequate counseling of this type. If each pupil with a problem knows that you are saving a definite time when he can talk to you in confidence, without interruption, he is more likely to share his thoughts and feelings with you. If you do not arrange for such time you may not get to the real problems the pupil is facing. Neither can you help him to analyze and work through the problem to a suitable solution unless you take time for one or more conferences.

with the best counseling tactics you can command. You will need to help her gain control of herself at the moment. Later, if the cause proves to be a family problem like a conflict she has had with her step-mother at breakfast time, you may want to refer her to a counselor or help her yourself to improve her relationships with her step-mother.

Counseling, although part of your total responsibility, is usually an extra-class responsibility for which no time is set aside on your schedule. It may be unrecognized as part of your teaching load. Nevertheless, if you carry this responsibility with good judgment and wisdom, it may be the means whereby you make one of your best contributions to pupil development.

Types of problems calling for counseling. At least three types of problems of pupils are brought to the homemaking teacher. One type is educational problems. These may be about courses to take next year, how to improve poor grades, how to overcome difficulties in classwork, how to make up work that has been missed, what college to attend after graduation, or a multitude of other questions. You will not find these very difficult to deal with.

A second type of problem is related to vocational interests. These may vary from wanting advice about work a girl might do to earn some extra money, to what kind of occupation to go into after high school, what kind of training is called for in an occupation, or how to select a college. Some of these questions may be answered during "Career days" or "Vocational Conferences" which many high schools are now holding. But you may need to know how to direct the student to find information about various occupations, the training required, the opportunities for employment, the returns they may expect, and so on.

The third type of problem is the personal or personal-social problems of the pupils, such as problems about their health or appearance, their feelings about their physical de-

say, "You really feel your mother is selfish in her request that you don't go with these other girls?" Jane is very likely to begin to tell more and end up by deciding she did not really mean that her mother was selfish, and that mother really has some reason to feel Jane shouldn't go with the other girls.

In all cases of personal problems it is important that you respect each girl or boy and have faith in his right and ability to direct his own life, if given the suitable environment in which he can make his own decisions. You must give a girl or boy time and freedom to work through the problem, to express all his thoughts and feelings. You will need to be consistent in resisting the temptation to express your diagnosis of the problem and offer alternative solutions. If we were to eat the meals of our students they would not grow physically. If we make their decisions and solve their problems for them, they cannot grow in personality. Consequently, the teacher who is serving as a counselor should free the pupil to think for himself.

Probably at this point you are saying to yourself, how do you keep from offering solutions when the pupil says things like this, "My brother and I just fight all the time. I know we shouldn't. Please tell me what to do to stop it," or "The other girls in the class don't like me. What can I do to get them to?" There are several types of answers you can use. You can say, "I don't believe I know enough about the situation to give you a really good answer. Suppose we talk about it further and see if we can find an answer together." Or you can say, "I might tell you to do this or that but I imagine you wouldn't be happy about my answers. Suppose you tell me some of the reasons you think the problem exists and see if we can work it out together." Or you might say, "You think the other girls don't like you and you want them to. Could we talk it over a little more and see if we can discover what is back of your feeling?" In this way you show

In schools that are approved for vocational homemaking the teacher is expected to have time for conferences about home experiences. Conference periods are also valuable and, in fact, are essential for helping pupils with these other problems mentioned above.

How to conduct a counseling conference. How can you conduct a conference about a personal problem of a pupil? The pupil needs to solve his own problem, not have you tell him what to do. He can solve it himself only if he is given the right environment for thinking it through. Time and opportunity to talk are therefore important. Also, he must have confidence that you are interested, that you will listen, that you will understand, that you will not condemn, that you will not tell others what is said.

You cannot solve a personal problem for someone else even if you say "do this," or "do that," for you do not know all the facts and feelings involved as the person himself does. You can only help him by listening courteously and carefully, as one who understands but does not judge, so that he can find his own solution. Your main job is to help your pupils feel free to talk out their problems and become more independent, responsible, and mature as they arrive at their own solutions. It is only by refraining from trying to force a change of attitude or belief upon another person that we actually leave him free to change his attitude or belief rather than defend it. So your task during the personal conference is to listen carefully, to accept respectfully.

For example, suppose Jane says to you in a conference, "My mother won't let me go with the girls I want to. I think she is just snobbish and selfish." If you reply, "Why, Jane, you are too nice a girl to say things like that about your mother," you pass judgment on Jane. If you will restate her feeling, she will go farther and begin to think through the real problem. To reflect her feeling you might very calmly and respectfully, without any sign of shock on your part,

A record such as the one below may be useful.

CONFERENCE RECORD

Name _____	_____	Phone _____
Date	Subject of conference	Future
Sept. 25	Thinks she should stop school to work. Mother divorced, works as dressmaker, needs to think this over.	Will come for conference Oct. 2 at 3rd period.
Oct. 2	Has found part-time job at ten-cent store on Saturdays. Thinks she can stay in school and seems to want to. Mother wants her to. Is thinking her problem over well.	No conference until Oct. 16.
Oct. 16	Likes job at ten-cent store but thinks other girls not friendly because mother divorced. Needs to talk this out.	Conference Oct. 23.

EXHIBITS

Exhibits are not entirely extra-classroom activities. Well managed, they may be a valuable part of the regular class work.

Sometimes small exhibits are arranged in the classroom, in the halls of the school, or even in the auditorium. At other times they may be displayed outside of the school in store windows or in other public places. Occasionally a home-making exhibit will be part of an all-school exhibit, perhaps at a community "back-to-school night." Again, a school may be contributing to a community exhibit or fair.

Some teachers have a custom of arranging a small exhibit of current projects and activities two or three times a year at the time of a meeting of the Parent-Teacher Association; others plan a big exhibit of all the work near the end of the year. Still others use some type of exhibit for assembly programs. Several small exhibits during the year give a recur-

respect for the pupil's problem, you accept the problem as the pupil states it, and you give her the opportunity to think it out.

With some kinds of problems the pupil needs information and you need to show him how he can find it. This is particularly true of problems of vocational choices. In these cases, you may need to have bulletins or books to share with him and suggest reading he can do before coming back for further help. You may send him to some person in the school or community or to the library to find the needed information. If he returns, you can then raise questions to see if he found the facts he needed and if he is interpreting them accurately. Then you can listen carefully and raise questions to lead him to think further about his proposed solution, but withhold direct advice about what he should do. You will help him get the facts he needs. You will help him examine all relevant facts, but you will not take away his *right to learn to make his own decisions and to assume responsibility for his own life.*

Some problems brought to you by pupils may be too large and too serious for you to counsel appropriately. When this seems to be the case you should try to locate some suitable professional counselor and direct the pupil to him. You will not want to assume that you can cope adequately with all kinds of problems.

Conference records. You may or may not want to record some notes about the conferences you hold when counseling pupils. If you find you have many such conferences you may want to jot down a few notes to help you recall each pupil's problem. If you have a series of conferences with a pupil you may want a record of the point where you were at the end of the previous conference. Such records should be statements of facts, not judgments about pupils. You should be very cautious about what you write down so there will be no danger of violating the pupil's confidence in you.

invitations that may seem desirable, always acting under the guidance but not under the domination of the teacher. Herein lies the educational value for the class itself. Much of the value of an exhibit is lost if the teacher does the planning and all the directing. Perhaps the display itself is better but the class has lost an opportunity to grow in managerial ability.

The story of the way one teacher made a community fair exhibit have real educational value may offer you a suggestion. This young teacher found at the beginning of the school year that her department was expected to help promote the annual community fair, and that the classes would also be expected to enter articles such as canned goods, baked goods, and quilts, in various exhibits. She and the class *planned together what they might do and what they might enter*. They decided that they could enter some canned food and also sell baked articles to raise money for their home-making club. They studied canning as they canned for the exhibit and baking as they baked for the exhibit. The teacher made the *exhibit a means to an end* by using it as a class project and by using pupil-teacher planning and doing.

Characteristics of good exhibits. A good exhibit tells its own story. It should have a dominant theme rather than many small ideas. It should be attractive, of course; so pleasing, beautiful, and arresting that it compels people to study it. All items need to be labeled attractively. The entire grouping should be simple, artistically arranged, and complete.

It is extremely difficult to plan exhibits that do not over-emphasize the productive phases of *homemaking*. Foods and clothing are concrete, but human relationships are intangible; therefore exhibits of foods and clothing are easy to plan, those representing relationships are difficult. Perhaps plays and skits are best for this. Here are a few suggestions which may be elaborated into exhibits of different types.

ring stimulation that will have an effect not to be achieved with one large affair. The amount of labor in either case is probably about the same, so it is just a matter of deciding about the plan you want to follow. Semi-permanent exhibits in show cases in classrooms or halls have their value, but an exhibit that lasts from September to January loses its effectiveness.

When exhibits are arranged in store windows, the manager of the store gives his display space out of courtesy and interest in the school. Such a display is good publicity for the school, for many people who will not visit the school will pause to study the window, especially if the name of the maker is attached to each product shown. This is a particularly good idea for a small town where nearly everyone knows everyone else.

Making exhibits of educational value. An exhibit may be simply an opportunity for your class to "show off" its work to friends and the community as an expression of pride in achievement. On the other hand, it may be an agency through which girls develop initiative, creativeness, responsibility, poise, ability to meet people, and so on.

A good exhibit of their work will increase the interest of girls in the homemaking classes, since displaying evidence of one's achievement for others to see is to most people a stimulating reward. Much more can be achieved, however, if the exhibit is guided as an educative experience for the class. The class can well decide what shall be the purpose of the exhibit, its theme, its content, and arrangement; the class can plan the display, can make or arrange the items, can interpret it to the viewers. It is quite possible for a class to assume the responsibility for an entire exhibit, making all the plans, arranging the articles, arranging the distribution of responsibilities, acting as hostesses whenever possible, taking borrowed articles to the exhibit and returning them. They may do all the promotional work and issue any special

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work is being done. It is also publicity, but even wider publicity will be given if a report is published in the school paper. A display in a local store window of children's toys made by the pupils is a form of publicity which may have promotional value as well. When, in a conference with your superintendent, you explain the goals toward which you are working and present a plan for reaching more girls through increased enrollment, or for further improvement in your courses, you are doing promotional work.

The homemaking teacher is frequently content with the consciousness of having done a good job. She may shrink from being before the public view and be willing to hide *her light under a bushel*. It is not sufficient for you to know that you have done a good job; the community should also know it. Homemaking teachers need to become conscious of the value of promotion and publicity.

Good publicity may be secured by means of talks you or your pupils may give to various groups such as women's clubs or men's service clubs. Publicity can also be obtained by means of well-written newspaper articles, by co-operation in community projects, by well-planned and well-placed exhibits, by good assembly programs, and by radio or television programs given by your pupils.

Perhaps a few words about newspaper articles will be valuable here. Remember that a newspaper article is not like a report or paper in a college class. The first sentence or paragraph should give the key idea, catch the reader's attention and interest. You can give details later. Write in the third person. Use simple words and short sentences. Give pupils' or peoples' names correctly, if they are used in the story.

Girls like to see their names in print, or their activities written about, and because of this, publicity may become a class activity. One girl can post on the school bulletin board all articles which appear about the class. The stimulating

Production

- Homemade equipment for care of the sick at home
- Style shows of clothes made by the class
- A complete wardrobe for the high-school girl, most of the articles made in class
- A table set attractively for a simple home meal
- A display of low-cost meals
- Well-packed and planned school lunches contrasted with a poor lunch

Selection

- A complete wardrobe for a girl, planned within a cost limit
- Style show of attractive clothes for a high-school girl, selected from those offered for sale locally
- Shoes displayed to show relation to posture
- Magazines chosen for a whole family's needs
- Good and poor buys in clothes, or home equipment
- Toys and books suitable for children of different ages

Relationships

- An animated exhibit of a family working together on a hobby
- Arrangement of living room furniture so all of the family can see the television screen, yet carry on their respective activities
- A back yard arranged for recreation of the entire family

INTERPRETING THE HOMEMAKING PROGRAM THROUGH PROMOTION AND PUBLICITY

Promotion and publicity to the homemaking teacher mean letting people know what is being done in her department. A good teacher of homemaking uses both. They are aids to the growth of her work, since they familiarize the community and the school with the opportunities offered in the department. They should increase interest in home economics and may also dispel false impressions of the work offered. When a teacher encourages her girls to invite their mothers in for tea or for a meeting of the homemaking club, she is both promoting the work and making it known. When a report of this tea is given to the newspapers, publicity is being gained. When the girls of the eighth grade are invited in to see an exhibit of the work done in the homemaking classes of the senior high school, a good piece of promotional

preparation, serving, and cleaning, while you will plan the menus, do the buying, keep the accounts, and oversee the preparation and serving. Some of your school-lunch problems, however, may be used for class problems in management, health, art, or social relationships. During the study of meal-planning your class may plan menus for the school lunch or select meals from the cafeteria menu; or—if the lunch room is used by the grade children also—the girls may help *small children select their food*. A class may prepare some of the dishes needed, thus allowing for practice in the use of large quantities and at the same time setting a standard of salable food for dishes prepared. At another time a class may use the food which is prepared in the cafeteria for serving lunches for themselves or guests, using home table service, and thus gaining poise and assurance in table service without using time for food preparation. A class may observe the behavior of pupils in the lunch room and discuss that behavior when studying social relationships. Or a class may undertake the promotion of nutritious lunches for elementary school children. You will be able to see many other ways to *enrich and vitalize your teaching by using school lunch problems*.

In very small high schools where the teacher and class prepare the lunch there are two possible situations—one where an entire lunch is served and the other where only a supplementary lunch, consisting of one hot dish, is prepared. In the first instance, your foods classes may be expected to prepare and serve the entire lunch throughout the year, thus making the home-economics class a service group for the school. Much may be gained by the members of such a group, for they prepare food in larger amounts than is usual; plan menus for lunches which must always be inexpensive; buy food; manage food service; and learn to keep simple accounts. All of these are worth while, but there is a limit to the kinds of food which can be prepared and served,

influence of printed articles is illustrated by the experience of a certain teacher who, in writing a short article for the state newsletter, had reported a project giving the names of several of the girls. When the newsletter reached her, she posted it on the bulletin board with this particular article blue-penciled. The girls in the class crowded around the board to read it and were flattered and pleased. Afterward she noted an improved attitude in the girls.

With all this discussion of publicity, however, there should be a note of warning. Too much publicity on banquets, social activities, club meetings, and not enough on classroom projects, pupil development, and practical home work may leave the public with the impression that homemaking school work is largely extra-curricular and perhaps dispensable. Also, if more publicity is given to the home-economics work than to other school work, jealousy and friction between teachers may result. But certainly enough should be done to interpret homemaking education to the community and to secure the whole-hearted backing of the patrons of the school. For further suggestions about writing, news stories, radio programs, and talks, see the authors' *Homemaking Education for Adults*.^{*}

SCHOOL LUNCH

The duty of supervising the school lunch may fall upon the home-economics teacher. In larger schools she may supervise, in smaller ones she may also guide the preparation. In either situation, if these duties fall to your lot you will need to answer the question: "How can this lunch be organized so that its management can be made of educational value?"

If you only supervise, you will have paid help for the

^{*} Maude Williamson and Mary S. Lyle, *Homemaking Education for Adults* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943).

4. Make a plan for an exhibit of class work in nutrition or child development to be shown in a store window. Plan the exhibit not only to show what one of your classes may have done, but also to teach an idea that homemakers who view the exhibit might learn and find useful.

5. Write a news story such as you might send to the paper to help interpret to your community your home-visiting plans.

6. Plan ways to utilize the school lunch as a learning experience for homemaking classes which are studying social customs, or meal planning, or child development.

7. Suppose that the school in which you are teaching is planning a Back-to-School Night when parents are to be invited to see the work which their children are doing. You are responsible for interpreting the homemaking program to these parents. Plan what might be done and how you might organize your classes so that the girls will take all of the responsibility for which they are capable.

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and certainly there is a limit to whatever ability is gained through cleaning up after the lunches are eaten. Beyond this limit, the members of the class become so many unpaid servants and are being exploited for the benefit of the rest of the school. Therefore, let this principle be your guide to the school-lunch problem—the school lunch may be managed and prepared by the home-economics class as long as it can be made of educational value to that class, and no longer. A few weeks of food preparation will suffice for all that can be gained in cooking; a few days for dishwashing and cleaning; but the class can continue to gain educational value from the management and promotion of the lunch for several months.

A supplementary lunch where one hot dish is served daily may be used as a class project in a similar way, although the problems involved will be of less difficulty. The preparation of the one hot dish may be carried on throughout the year, each girl in turn assuming the responsibility for it. The planning and accounting will, of course, involve fewer problems than for a complete lunch; but management, buying, accounting, and promotion problems that may be involved can be used as real projects to develop managerial ability in the members of the class and will be of educational value to them.

PROBLEMS

1. Study the standards girls must meet to earn degrees of achievement in F.H.A. or N.H.A. Then decide under what circumstances you would want to encourage girls in ninth and tenth grades to work for these degrees.
2. Collect illustrations or suggestions for club yearbooks which will stimulate girls toward creative planning for yearbooks for their own club.
3. Make a list of references you will want to have on file for girls and their parents to read if they are trying to decide on a suitable vocation for a girl to prepare for. You may wish to limit your file to vocations in home economics, if you think the school or public library will have more general vocational guidance references.

~ CHAPTER XVII ~

Adult Education in Homemaking and the High-School Teacher

Three developments in homemaking education make it essential that beginning teachers have some understanding of adult education. The first is a growing emphasis upon providing a program of homemaking education to serve all the people in a community, a total program of homemaking education. Such a program includes education for young and older adults, as well as high-school classes for boys and girls and Future or New Homemakers of America. As a beginning teacher you may have an opportunity for leadership in this type of program.

The second development is the increased number of communities in which the homemaking teacher is employed for ten, eleven, or twelve months. In this period beyond the school year, often called summer employment or extended employment, teachers have time to supervise home projects, take part in community activities, and offer classes or other educational opportunities in homemaking for adults. In many states teachers have found this summer employment period an especially good time to offer adult classes.

A third development is the increasing interest among adults in continuing their education in home and family life. This spreading interest has resulted in a larger number of high-school teachers offering classes for adults. Particularly

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adult classes as contrasted with high-school groups are due to school organization. High-school pupils, having once registered for a course, remain because they must, whether or not they are interested, while adults come to class only because of their interest or feeling of satisfaction in what they are learning. If you do not interest your high-school class today you may perhaps do so tomorrow. To high-school pupils you are usually a person of authority, more or less traditionally entitled to respect; to adults you will seem more nearly an equal whose judgment is respected, but who is without authority over them. To high-school pupils study is the main job, the activity to which most of the day is devoted; to the adult, homemaking or some other activity is the main job, and study is secondary.

The high school can outline a course and say to the pupils that once they have enrolled, they must take the entire course; but the adult course must meet the immediate needs of adults if it is to continue, and little "cold storage" information can be successfully taught. Active co-operation of high-school students in planning their own activities and frankness in saying what they want and don't want, like and don't like, is rather easily gained. Adults on the other hand are more self-conscious, less ready to expose their own ideas to possible questioning by the group. Co-operative planning, therefore, is sometimes difficult with adult groups and requires special techniques on the part of the adult-class teacher. All of these differences require careful consideration when you plan for adult classes and also when you work with adults in informal ways.

Adult classes and the high-school teacher. Homemaking teachers who have taught adult classes agree that many advantages come to them, and to their day-school programs as well, from having such classes. Among these advantages are the following:

is this true in schools receiving reimbursement from Federal vocational education funds. Many teachers employed in a town or small city which offers a vocational program may look forward to carrying some responsibility for one or more adult classes during the year and perhaps some informal adult education in addition to their high-school program.

For these reasons the young woman who is going to teach homemaking today needs to study adult as well as adolescent and pre-adolescent learners. She also needs to know some of the ways by which she may give leadership to the continuing education of adult homemakers.

Since much material is available from other sources to help teachers guide their adult classes, only a limited discussion is presented here to help the high-school teacher understand her relationships to adult education. Detailed discussions of how to conduct such work can be found elsewhere.¹

Differences between adult and high-school teaching. When you work with adults you will find that certain psychological and educational differences between adults and high-school pupils call for a different approach and for adaptations in your methods of teaching. Adults are as a whole more mature; they are more interested in their families, are more stable in their interests, and are not as easily influenced as high-school pupils. They carry heavier responsibilities than most adolescents and, as a group, usually present a much wider range of educational experience; therefore, they have different ideas about educational values. Their interests in learning relate for the most part to the satisfaction of their own immediate needs as they see them. They are not as willing to prepare for some more remote future.

Certain other differences you will encounter in teaching

¹ See Maude Williamson and Mary S. Lyle, *Homemaking Education for Adults* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, Inc., 1949).

the homemakers by bringing these needs before the superintendent, and to assist in arranging classes.

TYPES OF ADULT HOMEMAKING PROGRAMS

Adult education in homemaking, having no traditions to preserve, has developed in each locality according to the vision and beliefs of its leaders and the possibilities in the situation. In some communities the public schools provide the only program of adult homemaking education available, using the local high-school home-economics teachers as the staff. In others, the school sponsors and guides the program, but competent persons in the community co-operate to provide a varied but co-ordinated program of adult education in home living. In some cases out-of-school youth programs are also considered a part of the adult-education program. In some communities no organized group work is done only informal education. Examples of these different types of programs will be given.

Program of classes offered by the high-school teacher. In many small communities, especially in the states of the Middle West and South with large rural populations, the high-school homemaking teacher is the only trained leader for family-life education in the community, with the possible exception of the county home demonstration agent of the Agricultural Extension Service. For this reason she may be expected to teach an adult class. In a large town also the *homemaking teacher may be asked to offer some form of* homemaking education for adults. Probably one unit of six, ten, or twelve lessons, one meeting per week, will be offered each year.

Problems from every phase of home life are appropriate for consideration in these classes, but as a rule it seems best to confine the study during a single series of lessons to one phase of homemaking. The range of possibilities for interest-

1. The adult class helps the teacher to know the women, sometimes the men also, and to learn home conditions in the community.

2. The teacher may improve her day-school courses because she has become acquainted with mothers and from them has learned the needs of their daughters. *

3. She may, and often does, actually learn practical ideas of management—short cuts to save time and energy. She may also enlarge her point of view by contacts with different types of women.

4. Parents learn what the teacher and the school are doing in the field of homemaking and acquire increased understanding of the aims of the whole homemaking program.

Although you may not teach adult classes yourself, you may be expected as part of the total school program to aid in their promotion; to assist with publicity; to loan equipment, reference materials, and supplies; to assist with plans for the work; and to co-operate with other agencies that may be offering group instruction. Many supervisors and administrators do not expect the first-year teacher to conduct an adult class, taking the stand that her load is heavy enough during her period of adjustment to her job and that her day school work with its usual load of extra-class activities is all she can carry successfully. The experienced teacher may also find it unwise to teach an adult class because of a heavy load of other responsibilities or because her health is such that the extra effort required would put too great a strain upon her. It is foolish to jeopardize either health or quality of work by overambition, and you need to consider carefully whether or not you should undertake to teach an adult class.

In some small towns you may have to be responsible for the supervision of the adult homemaking program, if not for the teaching. It is then your duty to study the community and its needs, to be a co-ordinator between the school and

may teach laws homemakers should know and understand. Smaller communities are sometimes able to develop rather extensive programs of adult education by making use of the talents of their citizens.

Community programs. Many communities, both large and small, are developing community-wide programs of adult education in which home and family life education is only one part. In some cases the school carries responsibility for the entire program. In others the school provides some classes and co-operates with various organizations, such as the Red Cross, the Home Economics Extension Service, or the Parent-Teacher Association, which have study groups in some phases of family life. In either case the co-operation of the homemaking teacher may be sought. She may be asked to teach a class or lead a study group or to help in making arrangements for such groups.

Out-of-school youth program. Education in home and family living for out-of-school young women is offered in a few states in part-time classes; in others these groups are served in the adult program. The conditions for teaching in these youth groups are so much more like those in adult groups than like those in high-school classes that they are considered here as adult education.

Except in states where there is a compulsory part-time law which enforces part-time school attendance for those under sixteen or eighteen years of age, the pupils in youth groups are voluntarily enrolled and are held in attendance only by interest or satisfaction.

The out-of-school youth group in a rural community is often organized as a club group with officers who conduct the meetings and committees who plan the activities. They frequently devote one night a week to a study group for most of the school year. Monthly meetings are held with the young farmers' groups for recreation and business. Because you are the homemaking teacher you may be expected to

ing units or lesson series that a teacher might offer is very wide. A list of titles of units that have been taught will illustrate how varied such classes might be.

The Family that Plays Together
Everyday Hospitality
Foods and Fun for the Family
Family Relations
Meals in the Modern Manner
Food for Family Health
Management for Better Family Living
Time and Energy Saving in Homemaking
Are You a Good Textile Buyer?
Consumer Buying for the Home
Making Our Homes Attractive
New Life for Home Furnishings
Homes for Family Living
Understanding Children
The Child in Home and Community
Beginning Sewing
Professionalize your Sewing
Personal Grooming

Program using local people as teachers. Where the home-making teacher has too heavy a load or where the interest of adults in studying homemaking is such that additional teachers are needed, the use of successful homemakers or other local people as group leaders has been very satisfactory. If homemakers who have had some professional education and perhaps some teaching experience are willing to give some time to careful preparation for the task and are people who are respected in the community, they are often as good or better leaders for adult classes than the high-school teacher. Other local people who are particularly well prepared to give guidance with certain types of home problems are often very successful as adult-class teachers. For example, a nurse may teach first aid and home care of the sick; a store manager or buyer may teach a unit on buying ready-made garments; a primary teacher may lead a group in the study of child growth and development; a lawyer

preted to them. It only requires some planning to that particular end to make a Back-to-School Night serve this dual purpose.

Teachers frequently do some informal adult education during home visits. A mother and father may gain some new ideas from their daughter's project, or the conversation during the home visit may bring out ideas new to them that they are willing to accept. Often a mother will ask for advice on some problem of her own, such as the color to paint the kitchen or the material to use for curtains.

Somewhat more formal are the many opportunities which homemaking teachers have to talk to various women's groups, or to men's groups such as service clubs. Radio programs that the teacher or her class are now frequently asked to broadcast at a local radio station are still other opportunities for adult education. These talks, radio programs, and other programs that high-school classes may be asked to present are *real opportunities to help adults with their problems of home life*. They need to be planned for that purpose if they are to serve it.

It is evident from the above that you will have many opportunities for adult education even though you do not teach adult classes.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Teachers who are called upon for the first time to take part in an adult program always ask a number of questions. They will be answered here, with the teacher who may be expected to carry much responsibility for the program especially in mind.

Who is responsible for administering the adult homemaking program? In a small town the superintendent of schools is in charge. In a larger town there may be a local director for all adult classes, or in a city the supervisor of

present the lessons or to guide the groups to prepare and present their own lessons.

If the majority of the group are in their upper teens or twenties, their major interest may be in preparation for marriage. One such group pursued a study of factors which make for happiness in marriage, considerations in setting up a home of one's own, costs of maintaining a home, cost of having children, and similar topics. Many of these lessons were studied by the young men and women together. You might find this a very interesting and challenging group to work with.

Informal adult education. Probably there is no homemaking teacher who does not do some informal adult education. This statement does not refer to the efforts which she makes to interpret the homemaking program so that the people in the community will have a better understanding of what she is trying to accomplish, although some adult learning may result from this interpretation. The term *informal adult education* is used for all those activities carried on outside of classes which help adults to do a better job in their own home and family life.

Most informal of all of these activities which result in adult learning are the conversations that may take place anywhere, even over the telephone, during which a homemaker receives information or advice about some home problem. If there are scheduled consultations or office hours when homemakers are invited to come to the school for conference, as is common in some states during summer employment periods, an opportunity for adult education is being provided.

If parents are invited to participate in discussions of classes, they may receive some new insight into family life. Also when parents attend "Back-to-School Nights" they may get some new ideas that will be useful in their homemaking, at the same time that the school program is being inter-

How can one provide education without having class groups? There are many ways in addition to organized, systematic class work in which you can make a contribution to better homemaking on the part of adults in the community. By means of some of them you may reach homemakers who would refuse or be unable to come to the school building. One teacher organized a homemakers' club which met in the homes of the women. Each woman paid a very small fee for club membership. Any woman in town was eligible to become a member. Their programs were diversified, but all were planned to deal with home problems and were prepared by the women themselves with help from the homemaking teacher. Another teacher arranged each year for a group of homemakers in her town to take an all-day educational tour. Sometimes they visited food manufacturing plants, sometimes welfare institutions or museums and art galleries. Each year there was a special purpose in mind, and each year a committee of women helped her arrange for and carry out the trip.

Another teacher held a "Homemaker's Clinic" during the summer and made herself available for consultation at the school during certain hours each week. She helped with patterns and sewing problems, with choosing curtains and wallpaper, with advice on feeding children, with making soap and dyeing bed spreads. All kinds of problems, frequently taxing her ingenuity and judgment, were brought to her during the summer. Sometimes she provided bulletins and magazine articles as well as advice. Sometimes she followed up such conferences with home visits.

Other ways to provide stimulation to improve home life, such as home visits, teaching exhibits in public places, and co-operation with clubs in preparing programs and giving of radio programs may also be used.

Which are better, long or short units? Experience indicates that women frequently find it very difficult to attend

home economics may be responsible for the adult homemaking. Often some co-operating organizations work with the public schools to promote adult education for homemaking.

Who pays the bill? Money to pay salaries of teachers for such classes is supplied in a variety of ways: from the local school funds, from tuition fees, from state and Federal funds. Any supplies or equipment may be provided locally. If, however, the cost of instruction is partially met by aid from Federal funds, the classes must meet certain requirements. Under the National Vocational Education Acts (discussed in Chapter III) the classes must be under public-school supervision; they must be open to any woman sixteen years old or older; the instruction offered must be below the college level and must contribute to better homemaking. You will have to know the local conditions to answer the question as to who pays the bill.

Who determines the size of the adult program? The adult program may consist of one class or many, of one short unit, several short units, or a course lasting twelve to fifteen or more weeks, the latter sometimes called a *night school*. There seems to be no absolute minimum for the number of meetings that shall constitute a unit of instruction, though many states require a minimum of six or ten meetings for approved classes. Of course, the larger the program, the more varied may be the units offered at one time. In a small community, classes may need to be planned in a general way for several years in advance to permit a balanced offering, since the available teachers and the enrollment may make one unit a year all that is advisable. The teacher and administrator, with the possible help of an advisory committee composed of adults from the community, must decide whether one class or several, and whether other kinds of activities instead of classes, will best fit the interests and needs of the particular situation.

which is convenient for the members of the class and the teacher, and at any place, approved by the administration, which is properly equipped and convenient for the type of work a particular group is to undertake.

How does one decide what courses to offer? The needs and interests of the adults in the community, the training and experience of the available group leaders, the confidence of the teacher in her ability, the facilities at hand, and to some extent the interests of the administrators will be determining factors in choosing what should be offered. If you live in a small town, you will no doubt know much about the first point. If you do not, the methods suggested for studying the needs and interests of your high-school students can be adapted to use in finding the interests of the adults. If you wish to conduct an informal survey of interests, you will find suggestions for making such a survey in the authors' book on adult education.

OBJECTIVES OF ADULT HOME MAKING EDUCATION

General objectives. Although every group of adults which meets to study some problems of home life will have different objectives from those of every other group, there are some broad general objectives which a teacher may use as guides. These general objectives will help her to decide what methods of teaching to use, what her responsibilities are in relation to her adult students, and what follow-up procedures she might well use. Such a set of objectives reflects the philosophy of the person who states them. Consequently you will need to state for yourself the objectives that you believe are important rather than adopt those stated here. But if you are a teacher who has not taught adults it may help you to see a list of general objectives that have been helpful as guides in developing some program. These general objectives are:

classes regularly over a long period of time, even though they meet but once a week. Illness, vacations, and family demands interrupt the attendance of the busy homemaker, and the longer the unit the less the likelihood of constant attendance.

The short-unit plan has the advantage of holding attendance, and also of allowing new women to enroll at intervals for particular pieces of the work they want without having to take a long course, parts of which may not meet their needs. A short-unit plan also permits a community to offer a more varied program, since several units in different phases of homemaking or a series progressing from simpler to more difficult phases of one subject may be offered, and the needs of women of varied experience can thus be met. For example, to give a varied program if community interest and staff will permit, the offerings in one year might be three six-lesson units on these three subjects, "Choosing the Family's Food for Health," "The Well-Dressed Woman," and "Understanding Our Teen-Age Children." To provide a series of short units of progressive difficulty there may be lessons first on: "Making Children's Clothing," followed by a unit of six lessons on "Making House Dresses," then another unit on "Restyling One's Wardrobe," and finally one on "The Tailored Coat."

The short unit is also advantageous because it can be offered at times when homemakers are not particularly busy. Women are usually busier just as school is starting, between Thanksgiving and Christmas, near Easter, or when spring sewing and gardening are in progress. It is wise to avoid these seasons when planning for adult classes. Since many teachers are now employed for ten or more months, they may find the summer is a very convenient time for a short unit.

When and where may classes meet? The classes may meet in the morning, afternoon, or evening, at any hour

she can make her group aware of and interested in sources of information on styles, new fibers, relationships between employers and laborers in the textile industry, relation of allergies to certain fibers and dyes, and thus make a contribution to objectives 3 and 4. By carrying the discussion of why to make over and when to make over garments into the relation of clothing to other values in family living, she can stimulate them to rethink their beliefs about what is worth trying to achieve and what is not of value in their own family life, and thus contribute to objectives 4 and 5. If she stimulates some to plan and invent new designs and to exercise their own initiative in the making of the garments, she may be able to make a contribution toward objectives 5 and 6.

In our country in which we value a democratic way of living it seems evident that we will wish to preserve and encourage a kind of home life in which the best in our way of life is cherished. Concern for the best development of individuals, reliance upon the ability of individuals to meet and solve problems, belief in the efficacy of working together to determine both goals and means for accomplishment of those goals, are three much prized characteristics of our way of living. These can best be preserved and given substance in home life and should be recognized in our objectives, whether those objectives be for a particular class group or a specific lesson.

Class objectives. Objectives for a specific lesson series or unit should be determined by the adults themselves with some guidance from the teacher who, as an education specialist, may have a broader vision of the ultimate goals. You will not expect the adults to state their objectives in terms such as you might use. As you talk with your group about what they want to accomplish, you will probably not even call them objectives but rather "things to accomplish" or "goals to work toward." The "objectives" of one group of

1. To help adults clarify what their problems of home living are.

2. To help the adults find ways to solve their problems satisfactorily.

3. To stimulate adults to keep on learning as new knowledge is uncovered in fields that will help them to meet their home problems intelligently (child study, human relations, economics, nutrition, textiles, equipment, and others).

4. To stimulate adults to rethink their beliefs and re-examine their ideas of those things in family life that they think are important for their families.

5. To stimulate them to find satisfying means of achieving for themselves or their children the goals they cherish most, whether those goals are better relationships or better furniture, more fun out of life or more attractive clothes.

6. To help adults find satisfying outlets for self-expression in homemaking activities.

7. To encourage adults to think about:

a. The interdependence of individuals, families and communities in today's world and their share of responsibilities for the welfare of others;

b. The rich spiritual satisfactions in family life;

c. The high value to be placed on democratic family life and how they can achieve or maintain it.

Each of these objectives as stated suggests a wide scope of possible activities. Any adult class in homemaking in a given community may at any one time be more concerned with some objectives than with others, and yet some contribution toward each can be made in almost any class. For example, a single class in "Restyling Clothing" might contribute to several of the above objectives. The teacher who is working toward these general objectives will make a major contribution to objectives 1 and 2 by helping the group find ways to make attractive garments out of old ones and thus add to their real income. By the way she teaches

by their undivided attention, the requests for help with problems not discussed in class, their desire to continue the unit or to study individually.

If, when a unit is finished, you can answer the following questions in the affirmative, you may feel that it was successful:

1. Did the comments of the members indicate that they obtained what they wanted from the class?
2. Have the comments of outsiders indicated that the class was useful?
3. Did the members continue to come?
4. Did the members bring some new recruits as the class progressed?
5. Did the members really use at home the material discussed in class?
6. Has there been any desirable change in attitude as a result of this class?
7. Did the class serve an educational purpose rather than just furnish entertainment?
8. Did the group express a desire for further work either in this or other subjects?
9. Were the goals selected for the unit accomplished?

PROBLEMS

1. A certain teacher entered a small town in which no class in homemaking for women had ever been held. Plan the steps she would take in order to organize a class which could receive state and Federal subsidy under the Vocational Education Acts.

2. A superintendent suggested to a certain teacher that a number of women in the town would be interested in a class in clothing, and that it might be well for her to organize and teach such a class. She said that she would think it over. She was teaching three ninety-minute classes a day, with one extra-class activity. She was well and strong, yet she hesitated to undertake the new work. Under what conditions should she attempt it?

3. List a number of evidences, from your own observation, that adults can learn.

4. Make a study of the interests and sources of information on homemaking of several homemakers you know. Suggest kinds of units of study in which they might be interested.

5. Make a plan for discovering the interests and needs of the adults in a rural community or subdivision of a city which you would

homemakers will illustrate the type of terminology adults may be expected to use. These objectives served to guide the development and were used as means for evaluating the unit which was taught.

During this unit in meal-planning we want to learn:

1. To estimate the food needs of a family for a period of time so we can buy in large quantities
2. To buy meats better and prepare them well
3. To find ways to save time and energy in preparing meals so we'll have more to spend with our families
4. To find some new ways to make meals attractive and interesting but keep them simple
5. How to use some of our newer equipment more efficiently.

Objectives determine methods. In adult classes, as in high-school classes, the methods of teaching need to be varied to accomplish the objectives toward which you and your class are working. Essentially the same methods—demonstration, field trips, laboratory, informal telling or lecture, and especially discussion with its many variations, including buzz groups, role-playing, and sociodrama—are used for adult groups as are used for high school. However, you will wish to select and use each method so that you appeal to and hold the interests of adults. This means you will use situations and problems with which they are familiar, use terms they can understand, and arrange any physical activity to fit the pace and attitudes of adults. Since adaptations of methods to fit adult needs have been discussed in detail elsewhere, they are not included in this book.

EVIDENCES OF SUCCESS

The success of a class may be judged by the persistence and percentage of attendance; by the participation of a large number in the discussions; by reports indicating that class members have used at home the material they have received in class; and by the interest of members as shown

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find it wise to make if you were trying to decide what adult classes to provide in that location.

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MANAGING HOUSEKEEPING AND UPKEEP

Standards. Order is important. Time is limited in classes and in the school day. Many persons use the facilities of the homemaking department; therefore, it is important that all articles can be found easily when they are needed.

Cleanliness is important. Girls are developing habits and attitudes; you want them to develop habits and attitudes *pertaining to a clean, well-ordered home*. You want girls to learn to *see* dirt and disorder and do something about them, so you need to establish suitable practices in your department.

Maintenance is important. You are responsible for keeping equipment and furnishings in good condition; therefore, you must care for, repair promptly, and replace them as needed.

Good business is important. You are responsible for the expenditure of a considerable sum of money for the operation and upkeep of your department. You should, therefore, use good business methods in handling the purchase of supplies, equipment, and furnishings, and in keeping accounts and records.

A homelike environment is important. You are responsible for the impression that the appearance of your department creates, therefore, you must manage to keep the furnishings so arranged that a "homey" atmosphere is created.

Co-operation in living together is important. If you believe one learns democratic processes by using them, you will want to work with your pupils in maintaining the house-

~ CHAPTER XVIII ~

Managing the Department

A homemaking department like a home is a living center, a work center, a business center, and a social center. Like a home it must be managed for these purposes, which means that some one must plan for its use and see that those plans are carried out. In a home the family and its friends use the house twenty-four hours a day. Parents and to some extent children are responsible for management. In a school different groups use the homemaking department, each for a relatively short time, but you alone are officially responsible for its management. In both home and school the basic principles of management apply, but the details of their application in the school differ from those in the home.

If facilities are to be used effectively by different groups and many people, equipment must be adequate and arranged for convenient use. Daily and occasional cleaning will be needed. Furnishings and equipment must be kept in serviceable condition. Furthermore, the rooms should be kept attractively arranged. Supplies, too, must be on hand and accessible. Storage facilities must be adequate and easy to keep clean and orderly. Inventories and records must be kept. Ordering and purchasing will be necessary.

To accomplish all of this a system must be worked out and followed; individual and group responsibilities must be allocated, and someone must supervise to see that plans are

carried out and the system is followed. It will be your responsibility as a homemaking teacher to see that all of these are done, and you have the choice of doing them yourself or in co-operation with your pupils and others who may use the department.

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~ CHAPTER XVIII ~

Managing the Department

A homemaking department like a home is a living center, a work center, a business center, and a social center. Like a home it must be managed for these purposes, which means that some one must plan for its use and see that those plans are carried out. In a home the family and its friends use the house twenty-four hours a day. Parents and to some extent children are responsible for management. In a school different groups use the homemaking department, each for a relatively short time, but you alone are officially responsible for its management. In both home and school the basic principles of management apply, but the details of their application in the school differ from those in the home.

If facilities are to be used effectively by different groups and many people, equipment must be adequate and arranged for convenient use. Daily and occasional cleaning will be needed. Furnishings and equipment must be kept in serviceable condition. Furthermore, the rooms should be kept attractively arranged. Supplies, too, must be on hand and accessible. Storage facilities must be adequate and easy to keep clean and orderly. Inventories and records must be kept. Ordering and purchasing will be necessary.

To accomplish all of this a system must be worked out and followed; individual and group responsibilities must be allocated, and someone must supervise to see that plans are

kind of equipment to do the work effectively is essential. Also it must be of a type that is easy to care for and sturdy enough to withstand heavy use.

What janitor service should be expected? Policy differs in schools. In some schools no janitor service is given the homemaking rooms; in others the same janitor service is given as is given other rooms—that is, the floor is swept once a day, blackboards are cleaned and wastebaskets emptied daily, and windows are washed periodically. It seems reasonable to expect that much service. Beyond that, the responsibility usually rests on you and your classes.

Daily care of rooms is usually taken care of by a few girls (or the entire class) taking the last three or four minutes of the hour for housekeeping activities. In a foods laboratory class, that is easily done. In a clothing laboratory, housekeeping girls can put away their work in a few minutes before the others. But what shall you do when the nature of the class calls for discussion, or activities other than laboratory work? Suppose the sewing machines or the stoves and sinks are not being used for several weeks? Will the routine of a few minutes a day for cleaning still be maintained? Dust accumulates, whether the machines are used or not, more when not used than when used.

If you have several classes, each class can take a week for housekeeping responsibilities, thus sharing in what is often considered the drudgery of housekeeping. If you and your class consider the rooms as the home of the homemaking classes, a co-operative attitude toward this drudgery can be more easily maintained.

Periodically it seems necessary to take a "day off" from other class work and do a general house cleaning. That is necessary in a home and it is necessary too in a homemaking department at school. If planned with the pupils in the right way, a general housecleaning period can be enjoyed by the class.

keeping of the department so it is done in a co-operative way.

Management for order and cleanliness. There are two methods for maintaining order and cleanliness. Using one method you will work out a list of things which need to be done. You will work out a schedule of responsibilities for pupils; you will assign duties. You will follow through and check to see that those responsibilities are carried out. This will get the job done.

Using the second method, you will take time at the beginning of the year to plan *with* your pupils for order and cleanliness. You will list, with them, all of the things which need to be done to keep the rooms in shape for effective use. You and the girls will decide what needs to be done daily, weekly, or occasionally. You and your girls will decide on an organization for getting those things done, and how responsibilities are to be divided. You and your girls will decide what device will be used to keep everyone informed daily concerning those responsibilities. By this method you will get the job done, and you will also help your pupils to develop managerial ability.

Usually some kind of a chart is made which shows duties and the names of girls assigned to those duties. This may be a chart worked out for a month or for the semester. It may take the form of some device with revolving parts, like two circles of paper joined at the center; on one circle duties are listed, on the other are the names of girls, rotation of the two circles places names opposite duties, thus indicating responsibilities for a given period of time.

Cleaning equipment is necessary. In a home one broom or mop may be adequate, but in a school several will reduce the time needed for daily cleaning. Three girls with three mops can go over the floor of a large room in a matter of three or four minutes; with two dust cloths, two girls can dust a room in a short period of time. As in a home, the right

to the superintendent about the condition in which the laboratory was left. The superintendent's answer was: "Miss _____, they *thought* they left it clean!" Remember *clean* does not carry the same meaning to all people.

Storage. Keeping supplies and equipment in their proper places is always a problem which requires adequate planning, good use of storage spaces, accurate labeling, and systematic organization and supervision. "A place for everything and everything in its place" is an old slogan but a very pertinent one to follow when many people use a room. You yourself may remember where you put certain charts, or the roasting pan, or some other article, but others will not know unless there is a system of adequate labeling for shelves and drawers.

Keeping the equipment in its proper place in the unit kitchens is a serious problem. Some teachers solve this problem by giving each kitchen a number and painting those numbers on the articles which belong to the respective kitchens. Others give each kitchen a color and paint a small mark in the proper color on each article.

Charts, bulletins, clippings, pictures—all valuable visual aids in teaching—are difficult to keep in order unless they are well-organized and a workable system is developed for storing them. Bobbins, shears, machine attachments, and all the small supplies or equipment used in the clothing laboratory require suitable and convenient storage. Aprons, towels, and linens for use in the food laboratory are always a problem to care for. A system and vigilance in following it are necessary, if all these things are to be on hand and in good condition when called for.

Maintenance. You as the homemaking teacher are responsible for seeing that the department is maintained, equipment kept in repair, replacements provided, and new articles purchased.

Small repairs should be made quickly. For instance, if a

Another device is used by some teachers to help with the routine care of the rooms. Some teachers approve of it, others do not. The plan is this: each pupil takes his turn as teacher's assistant. On that day, this pupil gets out supplies and puts them away; waters the plants; checks the refrigerator; checks to see that cleaning jobs are done. In many schools this assistant is also the host or hostess for the class. He greets any guest who may come to the room, introduces these guests to the class. He may look after the plants or arrange flowers.

Those who disapprove of this plan use the argument that on the day a pupil is the teacher's assistant he misses whatever laboratory work is being done. Those who approve of the plan maintain that although the pupil misses the cooking which may be going on, he learns the processes by observing and assisting, and in addition, develops in managerial ability through the experience of being an assistant manager. They maintain that once a pupil checks the desk drawers of the class, he tends to keep his own drawer in better order; that what he loses in one way, he gains in another.

Sometimes the homemaking rooms will be used by other groups. For instance, the freshman class may use the food laboratory to prepare for a picnic. Picnic supplies are delivered; soft drink bottles are returned from the event. Whose responsibility is it to clean up? Of course there is only one answer. Those who use it should clean up their own disorder. They will do what they consider right but you and your classes will probably have a little extra work to do. Remember that their standard of order and cleanliness is probably not the same as yours.

An experience of one teacher will further illustrate this difference in standards. A parent-teacher group in a small community used the foods laboratory for serving refreshments. The next day the homemaking teacher complained

pupils in the class and results in a high individual cost for the course. This in turn usually holds down enrollment and often prevents girls who otherwise would do so from taking the course. This situation is typified by the following incident. A supervisor noted one day that there was a new girl in the class. Upon inquiry she learned that the girl had just entered school, that her family had recently moved from a nearby town and, though not extremely poor, still were not comfortable financially. A few days later she asked the girl how she liked home economics. "Oh, I love it," was the reply. "I didn't take it in _____ because it cost five dollars there." Here was a girl who wanted home economics, needed it, came from a home that could well profit from it, and yet had been prevented from enrolling in the class because of the fee charged.

A second method of financing is for the teacher and the class to raise money by holding food sales, suppers, and bazaars. Fortunately, this custom is becoming rare. When costs must be met in this way the work of the department suffers. As one teacher said, "I am so busy earning money for the grocery bills that I cannot teach." Neither is this means of financing a good business method for the school or community. A teacher going into a new community asked how the expenses of the classes were to be met. The president of the board said, "Can't you raise the money?" The teacher replied, "Can you afford to pay me what you do in order that I may earn the grocery bills for you?" The man looked at her without reply, for that view of the proposal had not occurred to him. The school board no longer asked the teacher to earn the necessary expense money, for they realized that it was not efficient business for the school.

The third and best plan for financing the department is to have all expenses paid by the board from school funds. This places homemaking on the basis of other laboratory subjects and allows the teacher to give all her time, energy,

knob comes off a drawer, you might ask a girl to get a screw driver and replace it. If a shade gets torn, repair it as soon as possible. If a sewing machine is out of order, fix it or call the repair agency. A good manager keeps things in repair.

Each spring you will be asked to present a list of books which you think advisable to have, or of new equipment that is needed or desirable. You are more likely to have your requests granted if you get that list in promptly, in complete and well-organized form. For instance, if you ask for books, give the name of the publishers and, if possible, the price. It is on the basis of such requests by teachers that the maintenance and improvement budget of the entire year is made.

Co-operative work in management. As said in the first paragraph of this chapter, you, as a teacher having the responsibility and the authority, can do all of the planning, ordering, and managing for the department. If you do, you take many details on your shoulders, and obligate yourself to give orders and to supervise constantly. If on the other hand you and your girls plan together, work together, share in responsibility and supervision, share in buying, and share in planning for the next year, you develop managerial ability, a sense of responsibility, and a spirit of co-operation in your pupils.

MANAGING FINANCES

The business of the home-economics department usually consists of planning for expenditures or making a budget; keeping accounts; buying supplies; paying bills; taking and checking inventories; keeping records; filing financial reports and bills.

Methods of financing a department. A home-economics department is usually financed by one or more of three methods. Sometimes pupils pay a fee or contribute supplies. This system places all of the expense of maintenance on the

save in order to acquire luxuries. Such earning may be done at times as part of the experience of the Future Homemakers or New Homemakers of America rather than as class work.

The greatest cost of the homemaking department will always be incurred in your food preparation classes. Needless to say, the wise teacher, who is also a good business woman, will keep the cost of the department down to the level of income of the school and the townspeople. You may reduce the cost a little by selling some of the expensive products, such as cakes or pastry; by storing eggs for winter use, buying them in the fall when they are relatively cheap; by canning or freezing fruits and vegetables and making jellies or jams during the preserving season, to be used by the classes later.

When the foods work is taught on a meal basis, the meal may be served at noon, taking the place of the pupil's regular lunch, and each pupil may then pay a sum equivalent to the usual cost of her lunch. Sometimes the pupils may bring their own supplies and take the finished products home with them. Where there is a school lunch, the classes may make some preparation for it and thus reduce the cost to both the department and the school lunch accounts. A homemaker uses foods in season and buys at stores where she can secure the best prices. You can do the same, unless the school has an agreement with local merchants to rotate the business, as is sometimes the case.

Accounts. There are various methods of keeping accounts, so you will wish to conform to whatever plan or system your school superintendent desires. Whatever the plan used, it should be simple and clear, and should involve as little detail as possible.

Good business methods require that at the close of the semester (or the year) a condensed statement of all accounts be made and given to the school board, through the

and thought to teaching. It is most satisfactory if the home-making department is allowed a budget for supplies, maintenance, and improvement.

The budget. When a budget is allowed for the year, both you and your school administrator know how much the work will cost and can plan accordingly. You can start early in the year making note of needs and can see that they are included in the budget for the following year. You can take the classes into your confidence and make the budget a medium for developing business and managerial ability in the use of money.

No model budget can be suggested which can be used by every homemaking department, for the needs of each vary and the financial condition of the individual school must be considered. Supplies, maintenance of the department, and repair or replacement of equipment should be considered first, additions and improvements next. The latter will usually be eliminated in times when funds are scarce and taken care of when funds are available or the articles are urgently needed. The size of the classes and the type of work to be done are factors in planning a budget. Small classes seem to require a larger outlay per capita than large ones. Of course, the expenses some months will be much greater than others. For example, serving dinners will as a rule cost more than serving breakfasts, and both of these are more expensive than studying problems in social relations, child care, or clothing construction. The cost of supplies also varies from year to year.

Earning and saving money for the department. Although having a class earn money to defray the expenses of a course is not believed to be a satisfactory plan, earning money for extra equipment, luxuries, and special privileges may be justifiable. It may even be advisable if it develops in the class members dependability, managerial ability, and an appreciation of the fact that in life we plan to do extra work and to

the labor many times, will give them a problem in management, and can develop a sense of responsibility. The inventory should conform to that used by the school as a whole, and you will consult the principal or superintendent in order to determine what form to use.

FILING

The first requirement for efficiency in filing is good filing equipment, the second is a system, and the third is consistent care. A filing case and manila folders are a great help if records, bills, budgets, inventories, news letters, reports, bulletins, magazine clippings, mimeographed materials, pupils' records, correspondence, club material, home-project records, illustrative material, and other matter of similar nature are to be kept in an orderly and usable way. A sectional filing case is satisfactory in a small school, as one drawer can be bought each year until the needed number have been obtained, and the cost is not great at any one time.

Filing is detailed work and is easily neglected even with adequate equipment, but the satisfaction gained from the possession of accessible records and materials is worth the few minutes a day which are needed. If your classes are taught to use the file and keep it in order, it will be a concrete means of developing orderliness and good management.

The filing of illustrative material and bulletins of various kinds is difficult, for such material is not uniform in size or shape. Bulletin boxes are often satisfactory for such materials; large manila envelopes are good if they can be kept in an easily accessible place; manila folders will also be adequate in some cases if they can be placed in a file or drawer in which they can stand upright. Some teachers make their own filing boxes from wooden or corrugated paper boxes, covered with plain or art paper. These can be placed on shelves or tables within easy reach.

At a cost of forty-eight cents, one ingenious teacher made nine bulletin files in the shape of large books. She had the agriculture teacher prepare the tops and bottoms from scraps of wood and tacked on Bristol board for the sides and back, leaving the front open to insert the pamphlets. These large "volumes" were numbered, and a card index was made of the bulletins to be found in each. Thus a bulletin on child care could be looked up under the proper heading and found in the right file without handling either files or bulletins more than once.

Illustrative material and bulletins may also be conveniently kept in large closed letter-file boxes, if the material is listed in an index placed in the front of the box. A key is often necessary because too many subjects have the same initial letter to allow a regular alphabetical filing. Before beginning to file such material, you should work out an index of major phases and sub-topics extensive enough to include all the types of material to be filed. Small enough divisions of subject-matter must be made to allow for identifying material easily, since a major heading such as "Foods" might otherwise have to include needed material on baked products, baking powders, canning, cereals, health, table service, vegetables, vitamins, and many other similar subjects. The greater the range of the material to be filed, the more selective must be the filing system and the more careful the indexing. Only so will the material be quickly found when needed.

EVIDENCES OF THE SUCCESS OF YOUR MANAGEMENT

The extent to which you are using good management can be determined by checking the questions given below. You and your classes can also diagnose your strengths and weaknesses in management by studying which questions can be

answered *yes* and which must be answered by *no* or by *doubtful* or *partly*:

I. Is the department orderly?

Does one receive an impression of order as one enters the room or rooms?

Is movable equipment arranged in an orderly way?

Is the small equipment where it belongs?

Are supplies kept in labeled containers?

Are these containers arranged in a systematic way in suitable places?

Are cupboards in order?

Are storerooms in order?

Are bulletins, books, magazines, and other teaching materials kept in an orderly way?

II. Is your department clean?

Does one get an impression of cleanliness as one enters the department?

Are floors clean?

Are all surfaces such as tables, desks, window sills, sewing machines, stoves, book shelves free of dust?

Are the storeroom floors and shelves clean?

Is the chalkboard kept clean and ready for use?

Are cupboard shelves clean?

Is the refrigerator defrosted when needed and kept clean?

Is the garbage can kept clean and odorless?

Are dishtowels kept clean?

Is the small equipment clean when put away?

Are left-over foods used or thrown away before they spoil?

III. Is your department well maintained?

Are floors in good condition?

Are walls in good condition?

Are table tops in good condition?

Is all equipment, large and small, in good repair?

Are replacements of small equipment made when necessary?

Do gas or electric outlets function properly?

Can water faucets be completely closed so water won't drip?

Are chairs in good condition?

Has duplicate equipment been provided so routine housecleaning can be done quickly?

Have needed books and magazines been requested?

Do you store and protect equipment and furnishings adequately for vacation periods?

IV. Do you use good business methods in the department?

Do you follow carefully school regulations about buying?

Are bills for which you are responsible paid promptly?

Are your requisitions prepared in proper form?

Do you have an up-to-date inventory for the department?

Are your records kept in good order?

Are your reports turned in when due?

V. Is your department homelike and attractive?

Does one receive an impression that the department is homelike when one enters the door?

Do you have a living center?

If you do, does the living center have a homelike arrangement?

Do you keep one or more interest centers arranged to give a homelike atmosphere?

Are these interest centers changed occasionally?

Do you make use of plants or flowers insofar as that is possible in your situation?

Do you have attractive, home-like curtains or draperies at the windows?

Are the books in the classroom library arranged in an attractive as well as usable way?

Have you used color as well as possible to emphasize homelikeness?

VI. Do your pupils and other groups co-operate in the management of the department?

Do your pupils share in planning for managing the department?

Do other groups share in planning for their use of the facilities?

Do pupils take responsibility for carrying out the plans for management?

Do other groups using the department facilities take responsibilities for their use?

Are plans for delegated responsibilities posted so each pupil can remember his part?

Are articles and storage spaces labelled so that pupils and others can easily keep things in order?

Do you share with pupils the selection of new equipment?

Do you share with pupils the planning of major expenditures?

Do your pupils share in arranging "interest centers"?

Do your pupils help with bulletin board arrangements?

PROBLEMS

1. To whom is the teacher responsible for the business of her department: the principal, the superintendent, or the school board?
2. Plan arguments by means of which you might interest your superintendent and school board in giving you a budget for your department.
3. Suppose that you had taught in a school for three years and were not to return for the following year—what records would you leave for the incoming teacher?
4. You no doubt have collected a number of bulletins, magazine clippings, and articles. Plan a good system to use, and then file this material so that it will be easily available when you begin teaching.
5. Plan a discussion lesson which you hope may result in your class working out a system of co-operative action for keeping the department clean and orderly.
6. Using the evidences of success in management given in this chapter, evaluate the homemaking department of some school with which you are familiar.

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~ CHAPTER XIX ~

Rooms and Furnishings for Homemaking Education

As a young and inexperienced teacher you will probably not enter a school where you will plan and equip a new department. If you should do so, you can seek help from the state supervisor of home economics, the head of the home-economics education department of your college or university, or from a teacher-trainer in some nearby college. The knowledge and judgment needed to plan and furnish a new department are really greater than an inexperienced teacher can be expected to have. You will, however, probably need to replace furnishings, and you will always have to care for and improve them. You may some time need to plan for a rearrangement or for additional cupboard or other storage space. You may also need to plan the remodeling of a department. You will certainly want to make and keep your home-economics rooms as attractive as possible all the time. The material given in this chapter is planned for these needs and is not in any sense exhaustive.

Rooms, equipment, and furnishings placed at the service of the homemaking teacher reflect the philosophy of the school and teacher, and have their influence upon the activities of the class and the methods used. Home care of the sick can be successfully included only when some provision is made for the use of bedroom furnishings. A class

can be organized into family groups for meal projects only when facilities are provided for group preparation and serving of those meals.

HOUSING OF THE DEPARTMENT

There is no one standard or type of homemaking department. You may be the only *homemaking teacher* and have one all-purpose room in which to work, or you may have two *laboratories*, or two *laboratories* and a *social room*. You may be one of the two teachers in a department which has two all-purpose rooms or a food and a clothing laboratory. There may also be a living room or a bedroom, sometimes both. You may be one of several teachers in a large city department equipped with laboratories which you all share. You may be one of two or more teachers, with the *homemaking department* located in a separate building.

What are the advantages and disadvantages of these different types of departments?

One-room or all-purpose laboratory. The one-room or all-purpose laboratory will be equipped for all phases of *homemaking*. This equipment may be adequate for the entire class to carry on an activity at one time, or there may be equipment for only smaller groups to work at any given activity such as meal preparation. Equipment and furniture are flexible in arrangement insofar as is possible, and they must be suited to multiple use. Tables, for example, will be used for discussion, individual study, clothing construction, and meal service. Adequate storage space is essential.

The all-purpose room has many advantages. If equipment is adequate the class can work as an entire group or can be broken up into smaller groups or committees, each carrying on a separate activity. This provides for flexibility in class management. One large room equipped for all purposes requires less capital outlay than two separate laboratories. In

a one-room department all of the space allotted to home-making is in use all of the time, which means more efficient use of building space than when each of two rooms is used only part of the time. The all-purpose room can also be made more homelike than can two separate laboratories, and its furnishings can be arranged at will to function as various rooms in the average home.

If only enough equipment is provided for small groups to carry on an activity, a radical change from the usual class organization and management is required. A teacher will need continually to guide two or more activities, and planning, therefore, must be done for all these various activities at the same time and well in advance. It is difficult to supervise several activities simultaneously and girls will need to work independently with less guidance from you. Evaluation of progress in several phases of work must also be made all at one time, and at longer intervals. There is a danger that the work may degenerate into skill activities only—jobs to be done—instead of learning to be achieved.

Some teachers prefer this kind of class organization. They claim that it is more nearly like a home where various activities are going on at the same time. They also believe that girls develop independence in planning and carrying out their own plans. Certainly a one-room department with large equipment provided for only a part of a class costs less than one in which equipment is furnished for the entire class.

Two or more rooms. A two-room department usually consists of a clothing laboratory and a foods laboratory. Frequently a living or a dining room makes a third room. Each of these laboratories is equipped for an entire class to carry on one type of activity at a time.

In this type of a department, class management and supervision are easier than where the class is divided. If only one teacher uses it, the class can move from one laboratory to the other as desired. When more space is needed for an ac-

tivity like cutting out garments, the class can use both rooms at one time. Committees or girls "making up" work can work in one room without disturbing a class in the other.

Though two rooms used by one teacher give her adequate space in which to work, they have the disadvantage of high cost per pupil and also present a problem in management for cleanliness. Keeping one room clean while the class is using the other is a problem difficult to solve.

If two teachers use the two rooms, per pupil cost is decreased and cleaning is not a special problem. New problems, however, arise. Classes must be exchanged between the food laboratory and the clothing laboratory. This makes it necessary for both classes to begin and end units of work at the same time. If this is not done, each class must meet in the same room for a full semester or a year and study only *those subject areas for which that room is equipped*. The teachers too will either shift laboratories or change classes. The former requires co-operation in management of the department. The latter means that the pupils change teachers.

These same advantages and disadvantages exist in a department with three or more laboratories and three or more teachers.

If each of the two or more laboratories is an all-purpose room, each teacher can plan and work with her class independently and can have the same freedom as when she is the only teacher. The disadvantages are the same as when one all-purpose room is provided for one teacher. The original cost is of course greatly increased because there must be more stoves, more tables, more sewing machines, more refrigerators, and more movable equipment.

The separate building or home-economics cottage. A vocational building, which houses one or more types of vocational work—such as shop work, agriculture, or homemaking—is sometimes built. The homemaking section of one such building has a large laboratory, a large living room, a

bedroom, and a bathroom. The living room and bedroom are furnished as such rooms are furnished in a home. The large laboratory is furnished as an all-purpose room. On the other side of the building are a classroom and a shop for agriculture. Here both vocational homemaking and agriculture departments are comfortably housed.

In some communities the school has provided a separate homemaking cottage, built like a home, except for extra laboratory space, where home conditions may be approximated as nearly as large classes and necessary routine will permit. Several states have large numbers of such cottages ranging in cost from a few to many thousands of dollars, with a similar wide range in cost of furnishings. Such a cottage may solve the problem of adequate facilities for homemaking classes when the high school itself is crowded, yet not sufficiently so as to justify a new school building. More space, better storage facilities, more homelike arrangements can be provided for less money in such a separate unit because the type of architecture is better suited for the purpose, and the foundation and wall structure do not need to be as heavy as in a larger school building. Sometimes a house which belongs to the school district or can be purchased reasonably, can be changed into a homemaking cottage with a comparatively small outlay of money.

Teachers who have used homemaking cottages say that they more nearly approximate a home situation for class work. A home atmosphere can be developed. The cottage, or house, if the teacher guides well, tends to develop a pride and sense of ownership on the part of the girls, sometimes of the entire community. The cottage offers many opportunities for homemaking activities, particularly in home management, hospitality, co-operative group living, home furnishings, and room arrangements, which are not available in the usual rooms allotted to homemaking classes.

The disadvantages of a separate building seem to be its

aloofness from the general activities of the school. If the building is too small, it may have the disadvantages of the all-purpose room, which is equipped for small groups, namely necessity for various activities to be planned, carried on, and supervised at the same time.

The living or social center. An increasing number of schools are providing a living or social center as part of the homemaking department. This center may consist of several pieces of living-room furniture in a section of one of the rooms; or there may be a separate living room. In some departments a large connecting storage room has been converted into a living room, and storage cabinets built in other rooms. When new departments are built, frequently a living room is included in the plans, to more nearly approximate a home situation.

This living room will be furnished as a *home* living room. It provides a home situation for small group conferences, for social projects, for study of such things as furniture arrangement, flower arrangement, and home accessories. Social customs studied and practiced in such a home-like setting take on real meaning. Frequently it is used for faculty meetings, for class council or other pupil committee meetings. Such a room affords the setting for social experiences within the school building. Certainly it breaks down the institutional atmosphere of formal laboratories and school rooms.

The homemaking teacher should study how to make maximum use of this living room. Certainly it should not be like the parlor of several decades ago, used only on special formal occasions, but should be used daily.

Attractiveness of rooms. It is obvious that rooms and their furnishings should be attractive, homelike, clean, and orderly. A good standard to set for yourself is this: The homemaking rooms should be so attractive that the girls in the school enjoy working in them and would rather be there

than in any other part of the building. This standard can be reached and maintained fairly easily in small high schools where there are one or two teachers.

Color has finally invaded the school. Walls, woodwork, and accessories have all come to life. Homemaking departments are now decked in colored curtains. Even in a large department, growing flowers or ferns, curtains, and pictures decidedly soften the schoolroom atmosphere. A few plants and colored curtains may transform an otherwise unattractive room. The relation of such arrangements to student attitude and development may be seen in this statement:¹

Classrooms which are informal in arrangement make social contacts easy among students and between students and teachers. Students like to feel that a classroom belongs to them, that they can keep their things there safely, that they can use it without too many rules and restrictions. A room that is comfortable, "homey," companionable seems more desirable for relaxation and easy relationship than one that is formal and austere.

EQUIPMENT AND FURNISHINGS

If it is agreed that the development of abilities needed for homemaking is important in high school, there should be equipment and furnishing for all home activities. The size of classes and the number of students who are to engage in similar activities at one time determine the amount of equipment needed. Sometimes you may borrow equipment for a short time. For example, equipment and furniture for a child care unit might be borrowed from a kindergarten or a local church. You might use a couch in the teachers' or girls' rest room when your class is studying home care of the sick. You might borrow a bed and set it up in a corner of the classroom temporarily.

¹ Lois Hayden Meek and others, *The Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls with Implications for Secondary Education* (New York, Committee on Workshops, Progressive Education Association, 1940), p. 137.

For the serving of many family meals it is particularly important that certain permanent equipment be provided. This means for each girl a place to prepare and cook food; a place to wash dishes, with access to water; and a place to serve meals. These are best when they are arranged in a home kitchen. Usually each kitchen is equipped for four girls working as a family. Tables and chairs and equipment for meal service are also provided for family meals.

Problems of clothing construction, selection, care and remodeling call for suitable and adequate tables, sewing machines, ironing boards, and fitting space. In the past sewing machines have been provided in the ratio of one machine to four girls. The increasing emphasis on machine sewing, short cuts, and time-saving procedures, however, is creating a need for a sewing machine for each girl in class. This is of course increasing the cost of equipping a department. Some place must be provided for girls to cut out garments, but this need not be a separate cutting table. Other tables can be pushed together to give a larger surface. Frequently girls use the tops of working cabinets in the food preparation section of the department. A separate room is not necessary for fitting, though some space needs to be arranged for privacy. A large screen will serve the purpose.

Similarity between school and home furnishings. Furnishings should be similar to those in the homes of the majority of the students. If they are a little more efficient or more convenient than those of some homes, they may stimulate the students to acquire the better articles, but they should not be so far beyond what most homes can afford that the girls can never hope to attain them. On the other hand, school equipment that is cheaper or more old-fashioned than that in the average home of the school patrons is apt to make the attitude of the girls toward the homemaking course unfavorable.

When refurnishing a department, it is a temptation to

think in terms of all electric stoves, large mechanical refrigerators, metal tables, and cabinet sinks. In some communities such equipment would be quite comparable to that found in homes in the community and would be necessary if girls are to be attracted into the department. In other communities such equipment would be far above the standard of living of the families from which the pupils come, so far above that it would be beyond all probability that their own home furnishings could be of such quality. To equip a department so that it will be interesting and meet the needs of girls from both well-to-do and poor homes demands thought, good judgment, initiative, and self-restraint. Unit kitchens, each on a different cost level, give one solution to this problem. One may have electricity and expensive cooking utensils; another a good gas stove and moderately priced small equipment; a third may have a kerosene stove, or possibly a coal range. The girls in the class take turns working in these different kitchens. Under this plan the girl from the poorly equipped home learns to use the better equipment as well as the poorer, and the girl from the more fortunate household learns to appreciate what she has at home.

Buying equipment and furnishing. You may find yourself in a department completely equipped and furnished, in which case you may be responsible only for buying replacements and supplies. On the other hand you may find yourself in a school where the department is inadequately equipped. In this case you will be buying replacements for worn-out articles and also purchasing new equipment or furnishings. What principles will guide you?

1. *Cost is an important consideration* and should be considered in relation to suitability and durability. You will be spending the taxpayer's money and you must keep this fact constantly in mind. In the final analysis you are responsible to the people in the community whose taxes pay the school bills. Consideration of cost does *not* mean, however, buying

the article which costs the least, but that one which costs the least in terms of quality for school use.

2. *Durability under constant use is a necessary quality* of school equipment and furnishings. Dining chairs which will be strong enough for family use at home may not be strong enough for school use where there is great wear and tear because more people use them for more hours per day. Small equipment such as measuring cups, egg beaters, and pans must be sturdier than is necessary in a home.

Tables must be stronger and the tops more durable. They must be impervious to acid and alkali stains, resistant to heat, and easy to keep clean. They should reduce noise and not be of such a hard material that dishes break easily when placed on them rather carelessly.

Sewing machines should be quiet, heavy enough to stand constant use, and not so complicated that they get out of adjustment easily. They should also be purchased from a firm which will service them later.

3. *Furnishings should be similar to those of homes in the community.* Expensive table linens in a poor community would be incongruous. Simple place mats of cotton, made by the girls, would be more appropriate.

Slip covers can be made for old chairs in the living center instead of buying new chairs, thus conforming to practices in many homes in every community. Unpainted book shelves can be purchased and painted or varnished by the class. New lamp shades can be made. These make excellent class projects in a home-furnishings unit.

4. *Equipment and furnishings should be suitable to the ages of pupils.* Likes and dislikes of girls of the eighth grade differ from those of the eleventh and twelfth. These differences will show up in the kind of material they like or dislike for curtains, in the kind of dishes or pictures which interest them. Of course, if girls of all ages use the rooms you have the problem of adapting to the various interests

and at the same time keeping a general plan of unity and harmony in the rooms.

Height of tables, chairs, ironing boards, and other working surfaces is a serious consideration. If the rooms are used only by junior-high-school girls, heights can be adjusted for them. The same is true if only senior-high-school girls use the equipment. If both groups use the rooms, you have an unavoidable problem. Sinks, tables, chairs, cabinets are permanent fixtures. Small platforms on rollers, however, or low stepladders will make it possible for the smaller girls to reach high shelves. Otherwise the problem becomes one of management; for instance, articles used by seventh- and eighth-grade classes can be kept on low shelves, those used by senior-high-school students on the higher ones.

5. *Pupils should share in buying equipment and furnishings.* Purchases for replacements or for additions to the department can become effective problems in consumer buying and in home management. Which of several egg beaters will be best? What material will be most appropriate, attractive, and durable for window curtains? Which of the many refrigerators on the market will be best for the money available? Which will be the most attractive and efficient flower container? Pupils are always interested in purchasing new things for the department, and through that interest you can help them develop judgment in buying.

IMPROVING THE DEPARTMENT

Many teachers start their classes in the fall with a project of improving the department, wording the problem somewhat like this: "We will be living and working together in this room all year. It will be our school home, and we will enjoy it more and work together better if it is as attractive and efficient as we can make it. How can we improve what we have here?" This problem implies that you and your

classes will study the rooms, equipment, and furnishing as they are, plan what changes would be desirable, study the problems involved in making those changes, decide what should be attempted, then make definite plans which the various classes will co-operate in carrying out.

Some improvements can perhaps be made at little or no expense, others will entail expenditures of greater or lesser amounts, which will need to be approved by the school administrators. Of course, you cannot go into a school and expect to make over the place all at once, but you can look forward to making changes for efficiency and convenience when the cost involved is not great, to improving the place so that it is more homelike, and to making the rooms as attractive as possible. What you will do depends upon your knowledge and your vision.

A few illustrations may suggest changes such as you might make. Sewing machines can be moved so that light comes from the left and reaches the feed, yet does not reflect from the machine into the eyes of the girl. Sewing tables and machines might be moved into a unit arrangement so that the girls using one machine will be working close together in a sewing unit.

If the food laboratory is equipped with desks screwed to the floor, the screws can be removed, and desks arranged around stoves to approximate unit kitchens. If stools are attached, they might be removed and the space be closed in for additional storage room. Perhaps cleaning equipment could be brought together into a cleaning center in a larger storage room. Perhaps containers and shelves need labeling or containers might be painted to make them more attractive.

Storage space is often a problem. Perhaps narrow half-shelves can be built into the storage cabinet, thus making use of waste space between widely separated shelves. If there is a store room, perhaps it can be reorganized, shelves

added, unused space used. Racks can be provided for magazines or charts.

Curtains at the windows may have been washed so often or so carelessly that they are uneven at the bottom. They can be evened, perhaps trimmed in some way, or possibly approval for new curtains may be secured.

A center of interest may be lacking. One can be arranged on the teacher's desk, above the book case or some other place in the room. Flowers and plants or winter flower arrangements can be planned.

Light should be adequate in every schoolroom. Your room may not be well lighted. If so, you may have the light tested with a light meter, and request fluorescent lights.

The floors may not be easy to work on or easy to keep clean, or they may be in bad condition. If so, a considerable outlay of money might be involved in order to improve them. The class, however, could study costs and prepare a plan which could be presented for the consideration of the school administrators.

Some of the above suggestions for improvement require a considerable amount of money to carry them out. A careful study of the situation and needs, a plan or two, tentatively worked out and properly presented, will often secure the needed improvements. It is a sad commentary on homemaking instruction to hear a superintendent say, "Well, she has never asked for anything different."

A story of how one teacher and her class improved the homemaking department in the school in which she was employed illustrates how improvements can be accomplished.

PUPILS SHARE IN PLANNING HOMEMAKING ROOMS

It has been an interesting and exciting experience watching an old office, a history room, and a primary room change into a homemaking department. The success of the project is due for the most part to

interest, appreciation and co-operation of the school board and superintendent.

In June the teacher came to Osage for one day to plan what needed to be done to the rooms and what equipment was suitable to move from the home-economics rooms formerly located in another building. Floor plans were drawn and left with the building chairman of the board. *He supervised the work which was done by the manual-training instructor.* One other day was spent by the teacher in Osage during July. It was thought advisable that the tenth month of employment be spent before school so that the rooms would be ready for the girls in September.

When the girls arrived the first day of school, they found work cabinets in the five unit kitchens painted an ivory but with the work surface not finished. Two of the kitchens had electric stoves, and three kitchens were equipped with bottled gas ranges. Small kitchen equipment, breakfast tables, refrigerator, and dishes were noticeably absent. The walls were a blue-green color. In the large sewing room the walls were a fine mottled blue-green and ivory. The woodwork and large wall cabinet were ivory. Chairs, tables, sewing-machines, and screens were a dusty array in the middle of the floor. In the far room known by all as the "old office" was an archway connecting it with the sewing room. It boasted of unpainted walls, bare floors, an office chair, and an old-fashioned leather-covered day bed.

Since every one wished to have a share in making our rooms attractive, convenient, and homelike, it was decided to give each class a room as their sole responsibility. The freshmen chose the kitchens, the sophomores the sewing-study room, and the more difficult problem of the living-room was left for the Homemaking III girls. All major problems were decided by the class but each girl had some particular project to accomplish.

Freshman groups chose color schemes and the type of kitchen each group would have. After all types of work surfaces were considered, linoleum in colors and pattern suitable to each kitchen was finally selected. Each group was given \$10 to buy the necessary kitchen equipment, dishes, or decorative notes. The first reaction was that \$10 was a veritable gold mine, but after looking around it was evident that some articles would have to be left for next year's group to buy. The groups selected their own equipment from the stores and the teacher OK'd the decisions. Because of a small budget, decorative notes were added which cost very little money. *Bright colored paint transformed pepper and salt shakers into gay flower pots for cacti and ivy. Breakfast tables were selected for each type of kitchen.*

In the original plans there were to be no two kitchens exactly alike either in work surface, cupboard space, size, or equipment. The equipment varies not only in type but in quality and cost as well. This will

make possible a comparison of values as the freshmen work through their three years of homemaking.

The last problem to be tackled was the windows. No group of windows was in just one kitchen and so their problem was to select curtains that would make our windows appear unified. It was finally decided to treat our windows as part of the background of our room, and so a tan percale was chosen and made with a valance and sash curtains for each window. With the light shining through they appear to be much the same color as the woodwork. This was an excellent incentive for all freshmen to learn to sew. When all was finished, the kitchens had a gay and colorful appearance. But to be perfectly sure they were convenient the girls' next problem was to use the kitchens in preparing breakfasts and suppers.

The sophomores listed as problems of the sewing-study room: arranging the room, curtaining the windows, providing a reading center, arranging the cupboard shelves attractively, providing a fitting center, and arranging the machines so they would be inconspicuous but attractive. Each girl chose the problem she wished to help with. Wooden cornice boards painted the ivory color of the drop ceiling helped conceal the height of our windows. Gay crash with horizontal stripes made the windows, treated as units of three, the center of interest in the room. A hanging shelf, hung between the two units of windows, painted ivory with blue-green, red and yellow salt pots as cacti holders on the shelves centered the interest. A discarded book case from the library was refinished and bleached to go with the light wood of the old sewing tables which had been cut in two to make six conference tables. The book case, plus a reading table and two chairs, a picture, and a winter bouquet of weeds in an old brown jug made an interesting reading center.

An old screen refinished with wall board and painted a royal blue on one side and a warm tan on the other serves to make a fitting center in the corner where the triple mirror was placed. A bowl of gourds and vegetables, an arrangement of bittersweet, a meager supply of glass dishes, and a gay colored pepper can with ivy furnish material for much experimenting in balancing the arrangements in the cupboard. Machines were placed where they would be most convenient for use yet not obtrusive. Block printing, applique, and crayonex were employed to make interesting mats for the tops. This group also have some plans for next year in wanting some chair covers for the reading center, a wall hanging to disguise the blackboard, and the old chairs refinished and sanded. They would also like a new machine.

The living-room offered a practical experience in home furnishings. A color scheme was chosen and temporary plans for furniture were discussed. Dusty pink walls, ivory ceiling and woodwork were decided

on for the background of our room. A second-hand davenport and chair were bought for \$12.50; these were in good condition except for the covering. Another discarded bookcase came over from the library and the office chair was viewed from the standpoint of an occasional chair. No desk was available for the teacher so the group decided to buy a desk suitable for a home for the same amount of money that an office desk would cost. The teacher asked permission for the old day bed to be put in the rest room and this was gladly given. With this amount of equipment the girls began to work—each on the project of her own choosing.

One group removed the varnish from the bookcase and then stained it to match the desk. The small scenic picture in gold autumn tones, found in a cupboard, completed the unit. Wine herringbone rep was used for a slip cover for the davenport and a royal blue in the same material and design was chosen for the wing chair. A conventional all-over design in blue and ivory was selected for the office chair that had been padded with an old quilt and the arms and legs enameled in ivory. All slip covers were made removable to facilitate cleaning. Blue and ivory print curtains lined with ivory were used at the windows, and a dark blue wool rug bought for the floor. Two occasional tables and a chair with a wine-colored seat for a desk chair were selected. A fern donated by the janitor, glass shelves at the double windows, a yellow hanging vase with a sweet potato vine, and a winter bouquet in a yellow vase plus a desk lamp for the desk completed the room.

Proper lighting, a radio, and a wall hanging are the girls' plans for next year.

Steps to take in improving the department. If you as the homemaking teacher decide that the department needs to be improved, what steps can you take to accomplish that improvement?

1. Evaluate the situation with the girls in your classes.
 - a. What is good about the present situation?
 - b. What needs improvement?
2. Study means by which the improvements needed can be made.
 - a. Which improvements can be made by the girls as class projects?
 - b. Which can be made by the janitor or the industrial arts or agriculture classes?

- c. Which jobs need to be done by expert carpenters or plumbers or painters?
 - d. Which improvements involve the purchase of equipment?
3. Find out how much money each improvement will cost.
 4. Plan with your class which of the desired improvements might reasonably be approved by the school authorities.
 5. With your class, work out a plan for reasonable improvements, during one year, two and possibly three years.
 6. Present this plan to the principal of the high-school, securing his approval and support for all or part of it. He in turn will present the plan to the superintendent.
 7. If and when all or part of your plan has been approved, organize your classes to undertake those projects which they can do themselves.
 8. Co-operate with the principal, workmen, and other classes as the plans are being worked out.

PRINCIPLES TO BE USED IN PLANNING A DEPARTMENT

Discussion in the foregoing pages has been directed toward the problems of an inexperienced teacher who is or will be responsible for maintaining and improving a home-making department. A teacher who must plan a new department or a complete remodeling of an old one can find help from a number of bulletins published by various State Departments of Vocational Education and by the Office of Education in Washington, D.C. For the help of the inexperienced teacher, principles which are generally accepted as those to be used in planning a department, are given here.

1. The department should provide facilities for teaching in all areas of family living: family meals, food storage and

preservation, child development, clothing construction and care, home improvement, family relationship, home care of the sick, housekeeping, home laundry, management of a household.

2. Rooms should be so located in a school that they are easily accessible for use and for delivery of supplies.

3. Rooms should be so planned and arranged that they can serve all groups which will use them.

4. Provision should be made for flexibility in arrangement of movable equipment and furnishings so that multiple use is easy.

5. Furnishings should be as homelike as possible.

6. Equipment and furnishings should be comparable to those of the majority of homes in the community.

7. Size of rooms and amount of equipment should be adequate for the number of pupils who use them at any one time.

8. Equipment should be varied in kind so that pupils may have experience in working with different types.

9. All furnishings and equipment should be durable to withstand constant use by many people.

10. Heights of working surfaces, chairs, and tables should be suitable for the heights of pupils who are to use them.

11. Adequate light and ventilation are essential.

12. Rooms should be provided with adequate safety devices.

13. Storage space should be suited to and adequate for all of the materials and equipment needed in teaching the various areas of homemaking and for the care of pupils' personal belongings.

14. Floors should be of such material that they are easy to keep clean and easy to stand on.

The above principles apply when remodeling a department as well as when planning a new one. Usually a limited amount of money is available. In planning for the expendi-

ture of that money, you should consider carefully, first, those articles which in your situation are essential; second, those which it would be nice to have; and last, those which would be luxuries.

PROBLEMS

1. A home-economics teacher was once overheard to say, "Other teachers and pupils in high school think they can come to my department at any time and get a kettle, or spoons, or anything else they want. The food for class parties is prepared and served from there and often the rooms are left disorderly. I have stood it all year and have had my classes clean up after them, but I am just not going to put up with this another year." Suggest a plan she might use to obtain the co-operation of other persons or groups in keeping the department in order and its equipment available when needed.

2. A superintendent from a small rural town has asked for help in remodeling and re-equipping his homemaking rooms. He has received an offer from a commercial firm to install electric stoves, an electric refrigerator, a home freezer, and an automatic washer at greatly reduced cost. List the questions you would want to ask before offering any suggestions to this superintendent.

3. Study a home-economics department in a high school and answer these questions about it.

- a. By what means has the department been made attractive and homelike?
- b. Can you see ways to make it any more homelike?
- c. To what extent has equipment been provided for teaching all phases of homemaking?
- d. To what extent is the equipment similar to that used in most of the homes in the community?

4. Study the materials available in your locality for floor finishes and for use on kitchen work counters, and decide which ones might be recommended for use in a homemaking department.

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~ CHAPTER XX ~

Securing A Position

After all is said and done, it seems sometimes as though teaching positions were secured by lottery and that perhaps there are no rules or regulations to be followed in securing them, but there really are certain customs and ethics to which one should conform. Much experience with classes in methods in home economics and with senior college girls, who are eager to find satisfactory positions and who do not know just how to do so, has shown that the following questions are of interest to them and no doubt to others as well. They are answered here in a general way, according to the customs in educational circles, for there is no formula for you to follow in securing a position.

AGENCIES

"Should I join an agency or trust that the college placement bureau will find me a position?" College employment offices or placement bureaus are maintained by most institutions to aid their students and graduates in securing positions. These offices are usually financed by the college and made available to the applicant either free or at a very small fee which helps to defray the expense of postage and the typing of credentials. They are, therefore, the most inexpensive agencies available. Because of their non-commercial

character they are usually reliable and impartial, and superintendents often like to seek their help in filling vacancies. The placement officer thus becomes a friendly connecting link between the superintendent and you. On the whole the college bureau is usually the best agency through which inexperienced teachers may secure help in finding positions.

Commercial agencies have their value, and many are very reliable. They must, of course, charge a registration fee, and when you secure a position through their services a commission, a certain percentage of the salary for the first year, is due them. All information furnished by an agency is confidential, and acceptance of this information is a legal obligation to pay the commission, whenever it leads to securing a position. You may find yourself obligated to pay a commission for another person if you have told her of a vacancy reported to you by the agency. If you accept a position through an agency and resign before the beginning of the school year, you will still be obligated for the commission. Hence it behooves one to be careful and give due consideration to business methods when dealing with a commercial agency.

APPLICATIONS

"Is it all right to apply for a position in a school in which I would like to teach even if I do not know that there is a vacancy?" Professional ethics forbid one teacher to try—apparently or in reality—to secure the position of another either by influence or by underbidding for salary. If a teacher writes to a superintendent applying for a position without knowing that there is to be a vacancy in his school, she places herself in the position of seeming to want the position of another teacher. If there is to be no vacancy, the superintendent will either drop the application in the waste basket or file it with hundreds of others to be forgotten. Therefore, whether it is ethical or not, it is certainly poor

judgment to apply for a position where there is no known vacancy. However, it is considered ethical to write *for information* concerning the possibility of a vacancy in any school, or to ask that *one's application* be placed on file to be held until a vacancy does occur.

"If a friend writes you that she is not going to return to her present position, is it all right to apply for it?" In such a situation you should write your friend for the privilege of using her name as a reference and for her consent to use the information she has given you when writing to the superintendent. She may not have told her superintendent that she does not expect to return for the following year and an awkward situation, embarrassing to all concerned, would arise if the information first reached him from the outside. The professional and ethical procedure in securing a position is to apply to the superintendent of the school only when you know that there is to be a vacancy. The exceptions to this are the large city school systems which employ many teachers and which maintain lists of eligible teachers from which to draw when a vacancy does occur.

"How should a letter of application be written and to whom?" Letters of application should usually be addressed to the superintendent of schools, who will either give all applications to the school board for it to make the selection, or will make a preliminary selection for ratification by the school board. These letters should by all means be business-like, professional, correct in form, and on good business paper—*certainly not on fancy note paper!* Remember that this letter represents you and should make the very best impression that can truthfully be made. Frequently girls ask whether this letter should be written in longhand or be typewritten. Some superintendents prefer longhand letters, thinking that something can be inferred of the personality of the sender from the handwriting; others desire *typewritten letters such as are approved for business correspond-*

ence today. Personality can be inferred to a limited extent from typed letters, as well as from longhand ones, so there are perhaps no rules to guide you except those of correct form and diction. The letter should indicate something of your personality in order that it may catch the attention and interest of the superintendent, for he may receive hundreds of application letters each year, often dozens of them for the same position.

The following advice concerning applications was written by a successful superintendent in answer to a letter from one of the authors. It will be of interest because it gives the viewpoint of one man who has selected many teachers for home economics.

My dear Miss _____:

I will give you a few of my reactions which may be helpful and which you may use or discard as you see fit. Of course every superintendent has his own methods and whims, and what appeals to one man may not appeal to another.

When an individual is applying through a placement bureau or agency the only purpose of a personal letter is to reveal personality and attract favorable attention. If the letter fails in this, it had better be entirely omitted. It should be borne in mind that a superintendent gets a mass of applications, many of which go into the discard simply because they have nothing to arrest his attention. The superintendent is looking for personality, hence the letter should be original and directed toward the particular job for which the application is made.

The letter should be accompanied by a small clear picture, taken three fourths or full face, looking directly into the camera. Extreme style of any kind should be avoided in this picture. It should reveal poise, sincerity, and cheerfulness; artistic effect is secondary. Identical pictures should accompany the personal letter and the credentials from the office. This duplication of pictures helps much in identifying the letter with the credentials.

The letter should always be written on standard eight and a half by eleven inch good bond stationery with the complete address on the letter, for convenience in filing. It should be placed in a full-sized envelope so that it can be folded correctly. It should be accompanied by a standard size, stamped, self-addressed envelope for the return of the picture or a reply.

The letter should be well written with even margins, straight lines, evenly spaced. If the individual cannot write this kind of a letter he

should rule a sheet and place it as a guide under the sheet on which he is writing.

Include a brief personal description with a statement that robust health is enjoyed, if true.

A statement of experience should include what grade or subjects were taught, length of time on each job, the size of each school system, and if reelected.

If a personal interview can be arranged, the candidate should ask for an appointment at a specific time. If this appointment is not convenient for the superintendent, arrange some other time by telephone or wire. In this manner the candidate is much more apt to secure a personal interview than if it was merely left to the discretion of the superintendent. The superintendent will not volunteer an appointment until he has virtually decided upon the candidate.

All this would indicate that I would advise a long letter, but this is not true. Brevity is important. Put in the things that are advantageous and make the language and form show that the individual has interest and enthusiasm for the job he is applying for.

With best wishes, I am

Yours very truly,
Superintendent _____

Members of a college methods class once sent letters of application to another superintendent, who returned them with his comments. Two of these letters are given here together with the comments:

I

Dear Mr. _____:

I wish to apply for a position teaching home economics and related science in the _____ high school for the coming year.

I am graduating this June from the Colorado Agricultural College where I have majored in home economics and minored in education. I have had some experience¹ in teaching under the supervision of Miss _____, teacher trainer.

My church affiliation is Congregational. I am in good health. My activities in the college have largely been journalistic, and I am a member of Alpha Chi Alpha, national journalistic fraternity.

The reason I wish a teaching position is in order to see whether I can put my college education to some use by supporting myself and no longer being a burden to my father.²

The following people will give you references³ if desired:

Miss _____ Education Department, _____ College, Fort Collins, Colorado.

Dean ____ Colorado Agricultural College, Fort Collins, Colorado.
Mr. H. ____ Earnest and Crammer Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

I would appreciate your interest and would be very glad to come to ____ for a personal interview if you so desire.

Respectfully yours,

COMMENTS OF SUPERINTENDENT

¹ Give details. You should be able to help with a school paper. That is a point worth making.

² I always take it for granted a teacher wants the money when she applies for a teaching position.

³ Good, but not necessary as these will be found on your credentials from the Placement Bureau.

II

Dear Sir:

Through the Placement Bureau of the Colorado Agricultural College, I have learned that there will be a vacancy in your Home Economics Department next year. I wish to apply for that position.

In June, I will graduate from the Colorado Agricultural College with a Bachelor of Science Degree from the Home Economics Department. I will also have completed the requirements necessary to teach in a Vocational High School in the state of Colorado.

During my senior year in high school, I taught two first-grade children, and two second-grade children. This teaching was done under a supervisor. I have also taught four weeks in your school, supervised by Miss ____ teacher of Home Economics, and the college.

I can make a personal application at any time convenient for you.

Sincerely yours,

COMMENTS OF SUPERINTENDENT

Good

LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION

"From whom should one seek letters of recommendation?" The best references will be, of course, those people who know you and your ability well, and who are interested in your success. There should be someone who knows your teaching ability; someone who can speak with assurance of your ability to work with young people; someone who will tell of your scholastic achievement; and someone who will

speaking of your personality. This does not mean that each should write of *only one point*; a letter of recommendation will frequently mention all of these elements. Someone in an official position can write with more assurance, and his opinion will carry greater influence than a letter from one in an unofficial position; therefore, college instructors, supervisors, school officials, and former superintendents are good people to whom to refer.

Letters of recommendation given to the person about whom they are written, perhaps addressed "To Whom It May Concern," are of little value. An unsuccessful teacher once showed one of the authors an envelope full of such letters, each written by a superintendent or member of a school board. There was nothing in a single letter that the recipient should not have seen, neither was there anything in the letters which spoke unqualifiedly of her ability. The letters were worthless. If, however, these had been written to a particular person in an official position and sent directly to him, the writers would have been able to speak without hesitancy or embarrassment, and whatever favorable things were said would have carried weight and influence. Herein lies one value of keeping your records up-to-date in a placement bureau. The bureau is then prepared at any time to send confidential statements concerning your ability and progress, and they will be accepted with trust and confidence because they come from an impartial office.

It is customary and courteous to ask a person whom you wish to write concerning your ability for the privilege of using his name as a reference. Of course, college professors are often expected to write these letters. It is part of their professional responsibility. Even so, it is only considerate and courteous to ask if you may refer to them. An explanation of the type of position for which you are applying will enable one to write a much more intelligent and more influential letter for you, as it is easier to write about the

Dean — Colorado Agricultural College, Fort Collins, Colorado.

Mr. H. — Earnest and Crammer Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

I would appreciate your interest and would be very glad to come to — for a personal interview if you so desire.

Respectfully yours,

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you and react to him and his personality and to his thinking. In other words, you are in a position in which you may "sell" yourself professionally.

Many interesting tales might be told of the interviews between superintendents and teachers seeking their first position. One superintendent asked a girl what she would do with a class of twenty-five in home economics, since her student teaching had been done with a class of eight. She answered that if he would give her a chance she would show him. She secured the position. Another girl reported that the superintendent would talk of nothing but her college and its activities and did not say anything about his school or the position. He was, of course, judging her manner of talking, her interest and part in college life, by her responses. Another reported that she was asked a rather searching methods question. She remembered the discussion about that very point in the methods class and answered him as best she could, saying that while she had had no experience, this was the way that she would probably handle the situation. She also secured the position. In another case a young woman was being considered for a place where social standards were an important consideration. The superintendent talked with the young woman but made no decision. He then told the placement officer about the town and why social standards were so important. Upon hearing this the placement officer asked the young woman if she would not take the wife of the superintendent around the campus and show her the Woman's Building. While being conducted around the campus the wife of the superintendent was carefully observing the young woman. In this case it was the girl's unconscious exhibit of her social self which secured her the position.

Personal interviews, you see, are many and varied in kind, and you will never know what to expect; but these suggestions may be helpful: Be friendly and natural; use good

ability of a person for a particular position than for just any position.

"If you can teach other things than home economics, is it well to tell about it in the letter you write?" Everything a teacher can do to help further the work of a school system should be in her record of credentials. A school official, who is selecting teachers, must consider everything for which help is needed in his school system, and not merely the fact that you may be a good teacher of home economics. Frequently the fact that you can help with the girls' athletics, or coach class plays, or advise about school publications or some other form of extra-class activities, may be the factor which makes him decide in your favor. The extra things you can do may be the very ones to catch his interest and lead him to study your credentials carefully. You should not neglect to mention all your possibilities. It is not necessary or advisable, however, to give these in detail in the letter of application, but it is advisable to see that they are on record in the placement bureau.

PERSONAL INTERVIEW

"If you went for a personal interview, whom would you see? What would you say? How should you dress?" These seem rather trivial questions, but they have been asked in methods classes many, many times, and are very real questions to a girl about to go for her first interview. There is no one guiding rule for conduct at an interview. While talking with you the superintendent will be evaluating your personality and your way of thinking and talking. Therefore, the best advice is to be yourself, and the next best advice is to show your interest in the school and its work. A homemaking teacher should look her part in dress and grooming, and should, of course, be courteous and as self-possessed as possible. You may study the superintendent as he is studying

Listen carefully to instructions.

Say, "Thank you, Mr. —," when you leave.

FILLING IN APPLICATION BLANK

The employer judges largely by penmanship, spelling, and the manner in which the application blank is filled in, therefore—

See that you have a good pen and ink, also a blotter.

Do not ask questions about the blank, but read it over carefully.

Answer each question intelligently. Take time to think. If the answer is "none," write it.

It is wise not to make too much of a point about salary. Most employers are willing to pay all that the applicant is worth, and anxious to advance the salary of any employee who has the capacity to accept responsibility, and is worthy of a better job.

Keep the blank clean, as it will be a permanent record. Avoid asking for a second copy. Take time to complete it well, but do not waste any time.

CONTRACTS

A contract is a promise made by both of the parties signing it and binds you as well as the school board. Many difficult situations have arisen because a teacher having signed a contract later wished to be released from it. It is not unethical to ask to be released, provided there is sufficient time before the beginning of the school term to insure that another teacher can be found, and provided there is a justifiable reason for the request, such as the offer of a very much better position, or serious illness in one's family. It is considered unethical, however, to accept one position, sign a contract, hold it until the very beginning of school, and then resign; or merely to hold a contract while trying to find a better position. There are two sides to the situation always, and the school must be considered as well as the interests of the teacher. Most school boards will be reasonable and release you if a decidedly better opportunity opens up; likewise most teachers will expect to fulfill their contract unless a serious reason prevents it. The following incident illustrates the fine attitude which is taken by many school boards and teachers. A teacher of homemaking received a wire

English, of course; dress well, in business clothes; be clean and well groomed; do not be afraid to show an interest in the school, or to ask questions about it, though not officiously, or in a way to suggest criticism. Terminate the interview, if the other person does not, when the purpose of the meeting has been accomplished.

Several years ago the Department of Vocational Education of the Portland Public Schools, issued a small circular with suggestions for making an interview, and filling in an application blank. You may find them of interest.

PREPARING FOR THE INTERVIEW

Before you leave home to interview a prospective employer determine to succeed in getting the job.

The *first impression* is important, therefore—

Be sure that you are clean and tidy; that your teeth are clean, your finger-nails clean and trimmed, your hair arranged neatly and becomingly. Be neat and businesslike in your dress. Wear sensible shoes properly polished. Carry a clean handkerchief.

Don't wear too many class pins, badges, etc.

Don't wear loud sweaters, caps, etc.; it looks amateurish.

Don't "make-up" too much or overdress. Remember, you are getting ready for business, *not for the stage*.

Information from employers shows that the young men and women who are hired and who succeed are the ones who remember these pointers all the time.

WHEN INTERVIEWING THE EMPLOYER

Enter the room in a quiet, self-possessed manner. (If the employer is busy, do not interrupt; wait until he is through.) Introduce yourself. Look at the person you are addressing.

Speak distinctly and without hesitation. (By all means do not have any candy or gum in your mouth.)

Stand up—do not lean on anything—and remain standing until invited to be seated.

Be modest; aggressiveness is out of place.

Keep your hands out of your pockets.

Smile now and then—maybe you are going to get a job.

Be willing to take a test.

Find out working hours.

Exaggerating qualifications or failure to give all pertinent facts when applying for a position

Cultivating friendship among board members and their families in an attempt to exercise a "pull"

Underbidding for positions

Failure to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been secured

Endeavoring to secure or maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices or advertising

Applying for a position directly to the board of education instead of to the superintendent

Securing, or holding, a position through "pull"

Using general testimonial

Accepting a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board of education or superintendent of schools.

For the Administrator

Dismissing teachers without giving them ample notice and an opportunity to be heard

A school official going to a teacher to persuade her to accept a position with him before he has conferred with her present officials

Failure of school officials to recommend their teacher for better position in other communities because of disinclination to lose her services

School officials being influenced by "pull" and "politics" in employing teachers.

A committee on ethics was appointed by the National Education Association in 1924. As a result of its work a national code of ethics for teachers was adopted by the Association in 1929. Several times since then the code has been revised; the latest revision being made in 1952. Pertinent ethical responsibilities of a teacher pointed out in this code are: (1) to refrain from applying for a position currently held by another; (2) to use only her competence for the position as the basis for seeking an appointment or promotion; (3) to use only truthful and confidential recommendations when seeking employment; (4) to fulfill a contract at a professional level of service, once it is signed, unless it is dissolved by mutual consent; (5) to give ample notification to the administrator of a desire to change her position. As

three days before her school was to open, offering her a position which would be a decided gain both financially and professionally. She told her school board that she would like to be released, provided another teacher could be secured for the local position, but not otherwise. The board, feeling that it would be impossible to find some one at that late date who would be as good as she, asked that she remain. In February, the president of the school board wrote to the person who had offered this teacher the other position, stating that he had been sorry to hold Miss ———, but that she would be available for next year if the position which had been offered to her were to be available again, and that he recommended her very highly. In March still another opportunity offered itself in a large city system, which also promised a great advance for her professionally. This time the school board released her and secured a substitute teacher for the remainder of the year.

Contracts are binding and should be respected and maintained unless a serious reason arises for not doing so, in which case it is quite proper to ask to be released.

UNETHICAL PRACTICES

Some twenty years ago fifteen hundred members of the teaching profession participated in a study of unethical practices of teachers. Practices relative to securing a position which were considered unethical then are equally unethical today. Certain of the unethical practices listed in a report of this study are listed here for your thoughtful consideration.

UNETHICAL PRACTICES IN SECURING POSITIONS ¹

For the Teacher

Breaking contracts

Applying for positions not known to be vacant

¹ Adapted from "A Code of Ethics," by Ward C. Reeder, *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University (January 7, 1931).

~ CHAPTER XXI ~

A Talk with Teachers About Life Outside of School

This chapter is written for those of you who are inexperienced teachers starting on your first teaching position and who, no matter how well trained, are at this time feeling somewhat bewildered. You are leaving a known and tried situation to enter an unknown and untried one. You will adjust yourself either well or poorly to a different environment, where mistakes may be followed by serious consequences. In college, mistakes are largely excused, or overlooked, but in the teaching field the penalty for mistakes is often severe. In college you have looked up to your professors with respect; in your situation, as a teacher of home-making in high school, your pupils will look up to you. You will see the other side of the pupil-teacher relationship now, and will find that teaching is not confined to the formal procedures of the classroom, nor is success in teaching due only to the successful use of these procedures.

Identify yourself with the community. It is important that you identify yourself with the town to which you go and with its people. The town is your home during your school term, therefore do not express criticism of it. In *Letters*

a future teacher you should be familiar with this entire code.²

PROBLEMS

1. A teacher with two years of experience planned to get married about the middle of August, but did not resign from her position until the time for the wedding. When a friend asked her about it she said, "Well, something may happen, and if it does, I want my job back, so I am not going to resign until I am married." Give arguments for and against the ethics of her procedure.

2. Suppose you have been interviewed by three superintendents. All three seemed to be favorably impressed by your qualifications. You would particularly like to work with one of them. Two days after the interviews you receive a letter, including a contract, from one superintendent asking for an immediate reply. The contract is not from the school in which you want most to teach. What action should you take?

3. A friend of yours has written you that she plans to give up her position next year to do graduate study, but she is not going to tell her superintendent for several weeks. You would very much like to teach in that school. What is the ethical procedure for you to use?

4. Write a letter of application for a position in a town in which you would like to teach, assuming that you have been told of a vacancy.

5. Suppose that you were called from the placement bureau of your college in the morning and informed that you might have an interview late that afternoon with the superintendent of the school in which you wish to secure a position. Plan the preparation you would make for the interview.

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- ² "New NEA Code of Ethics," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 41 (September, 1952), pp. 371-372.

will depend largely upon them. Some teachers prefer to be with a family; others prefer to live in a boardinghouse. Others enjoy living in an apartment. While a private home has more of the advantages of home life, it may prove to be an uncongenial home life. Too much intimacy with the family may cause difficulty unless you are very discreet in talking about school affairs. A boardinghouse, on the other hand, may be just a boardinghouse with little to attract; then again it may be a most desirable place to stay. The results of the national study on *Satisfactions of Home-Economics Teachers* show that homemaking teachers tend to be more nearly satisfied when their living conditions give them freedom and an opportunity to live a normal home life. They like to live in apartments or in homes where they have freedom. As a young teacher you should consider this. Perhaps an apartment is not available. Perhaps the cost would be too high. But find a situation as near like a home as you can. As a new person in the community you will not know where to go or what places will be available except as some one advises you. Your superintendent should be your adviser here.

It is wise to keep your work away from your home, if possible. Many teachers prefer to live at some distance from the school, so that when they go home they are out of the school atmosphere. You want to enjoy your work, to live your work, but also to enjoy other things and live other things as well. So let your room suggest to you rest and recreation and the school suggest your work.

Don't gossip. Gossip is always dangerous whether one is indulging in it or listening to it. It is easy when meeting other teachers to talk about pupils or administrators of the school. Town people who you meet may also want to talk about them. What is said may be harmless; nine times out of ten, it probably is; but the tenth time may be most unfortunate. If you must talk about others in the school, see

from a Hard-boiled Teacher to His Half-baked Son, the father says,¹

You might think John, that my fears are foolish, but I have seen many young teachers take the first step on greased skids to pedagogical perdition by whining about the defects of the school town.

You may have been used to city life and find yourself in a small rural community. Perhaps you do not like it at first, but do not let others know that you do not. It is better to try to adjust to it. One young teacher who was very popular in college, a leader in college life, went to a small mining town for her first year of teaching. There were no dances or parties like those to which she had been accustomed, but she found her recreation in the community in other ways. During her third month of school she wrote letters bubbling over with enthusiasm for her work and saying that every weekend until snow stopped them she and other teachers took some trip into the nearby mountains. She liked the town. It is not difficult to adjust yourself if you truly enjoy teaching and like young people.

Many places have their own peculiar customs to which a discreet teacher will conform. Within the limits of right conduct and good taste do as the local people do, for to do otherwise will set you apart and mark you as an outsider. For instance, in a certain mountain town the streets always become snow-blocked and paths are dug through two or three feet of snow. These paths are dug to the backs of the houses, so that visitors find themselves going to the back doors. It is easy to imagine what would be the attitude of the townspeople if a teacher insisted upon wading through snow to the front door, which perhaps opened into a cold hall or front room!

Find comfortable living conditions. Comfortable and congenial living conditions are important, for your happiness

¹ George Frederick Miller, *Letters from a Hard-boiled Teacher to His Half-baked Son* (Washington, D.C., The Daylton Co., 1931).

the wee hours of the morning and maintain the respect of the community, and to lose the respect of the community weakens her influence and may mean no re-election for her.

It is normal for you to want friends, and you will want to choose your own, but choose them with judgment, and slowly. Remember that *fine* qualities do not always appear on the surface, and sometimes the fine surface is surface only. A state supervisor of agriculture was once asked what social advice he would give to a young teacher, going into a new community. His answer was, "Tell her not to fall for the village sheik. There is always some young fellow, who has a sporty car and nothing much to do, who likes to play around with the new teacher. He isn't worth a darn."

When people offer you friendly courtesies, you will of course accept them when you can, and not forget to return them. Remember too that in many situations you will need to go more than half way to make acquaintances. This will be true especially in small communities where you are looked up to as a college graduate and as *the home-economics teacher*. Some friendly woman may say to you some day, "I would like to invite you over to supper, but you are the home-economics teacher!" It takes tact to make her feel that, since you are the home-economics teacher, you understand home conditions and are not critical of them. Social life in many communities is made up of small informal affairs. Be informal with the others, but not so informal that you appear rude.

Look the part. Clothes, perhaps, do not make the woman, but they do exert a great influence over the opinions of people concerning you, and your clothes will influence your standing as a home-economics teacher. People in the community are likely to accept you more readily if you avoid extremes in your clothes. They expect their home-economics teacher to be tastefully dressed and well groomed. They expect too that she will show judgment in using "make-up"

that you say pleasant things without sting or ridicule. If others want to talk, listen, but be careful how you agree. There is always some one to talk about the teacher who preceded you, telling you how she did, or did not do this or that, how noisy her girls were, or perhaps how splendid her work was. You will feel either superior or inferior as the case may be, but you will be wise to look interested and say little.

Be friendly with pupils. You will often see your pupils outside of school. How friendly, how familiar should you be with them? There is an intangible line which a teacher does not cross. Go on a picnic with a group of girls? Yes. Be informal with them? Yes. But you are always "Miss _____." If you are a good teacher you are interested in boys and girls out of school as well as in school. You can show this interest, and let it strengthen your teacher-pupil relationship, but you will not pass the line toward undue familiarity.

Maintain your social reputation. The president of a school board once visited a college placement bureau and selected for a certain teaching position a young man who, from his recommendations, seemed to be satisfactory, but before offering him the position the school-board member invited the young man out to dinner. Later he told the placement officer that he did so because a teacher who had been chosen the previous year ate with his knife and had been severely criticized because of poor manners. The school officer did not wish to make a second mistake of this kind. A teacher's social reputation is invaluable.

Perhaps you rebel at conventions; if so you are in the wrong profession when you have chosen teaching. A teacher of homemaking cannot afford to rebel at conventions, for common social customs are a part of her stock in trade. She cannot "date" with high-school boys. "To date with a high-school boy means that she might as well hand in her contract," one superintendent said. She cannot have callers until

You may ask, "But suppose I want to get married in a year or two?" This poses a serious problem for you and also for the profession. You plan to marry, therefore you want to save all of the money you can for the many things it is natural and right that a young couple should desire when starting a new home. Which should come first, this desire to save money, or your responsibilities to your job and to the people in the community who, as taxpayers, gave you that job? Do you want to be the kind of teacher who accepts a job, takes all she can from it, and gives the minimum in return?

Even though one does not plan to marry soon, there is a joy in spending one's own money during the first year of teaching that sometimes is overwhelming, and we spend, not recklessly but thoughtlessly. A good homemaking teacher will understand budgeting and should have enough self-control to weigh values and make her expenditures accordingly. To have a reputation for always paying your bills on the first of the month in a businesslike way is worth striving for. This is part of the responsibility of the homemaker and also of one who is teaching homemaking.

It is also sensible to remember that you draw your salary from community funds, and therefore do part of your buying in the town whose store-owners make their profit by the exchange of goods and money from that community. People in a town normally think that your general living costs, even more of your spendings, should return to that town. Saving to spend in a nearby city is a practice which one can scarcely expect a community to approve.

Become a member of your professional organizations. Some school boards require each teacher to sign a contract stipulating, among other things, that she shall join the state teachers' association and attend its meetings. Some teachers rebel against this. Whether it is right for a community to demand that its teachers belong to an educational organiza-

for the purpose for which it is intended. If you really "look the part" as a home-economics teacher, you will be neither a prude, a drab dull person, nor a faddist.

Use good judgment in money matters. It takes courage for one teacher to advise another about finances, but talks with many girls who are about to begin teaching or who have been teaching only a few months, convince one that some suggestions here will not be out of place.

A question frequently asked is, "How much should I expect to save?" No one can answer that question for some one else, except in this way: Live within your income and save something each month. You should of course plan your expenditures and try to keep within that plan, but do not be overambitious; do not expect to pay back all of your college debts the first year, as some girls strive to do. You can save reasonably, spend reasonably, and live reasonably. One girl owed a large college debt and wished to clear it all during the first year of teaching. She skimped on her clothes, wearing old, worn, shabby ones; she attended few entertainments, and therefore placed herself outside of the social life of the community. She took a cheap room and did her own washing. Her ambition was admirable, but her judgment was faulty. At the end of the year she was little known and had made so little impression on the school and community that when it was decided that one teacher must be dropped from the system she was the one to go. Another teacher made a different decision. She too had a large college debt, but she budgeted so much a month for paying it back, so much for living and community life, so much for professional improvement, clothes, and so on. She planned a *reasonable time for refunding her debt, and lived a reasonable life in the meanwhile*. At the end of two years she had a good position with half her debt paid; the other girl had all of her debt paid and no position. It is obvious which girl was further ahead.

standards of living. They want to live better in the homes they have. They are looking to us, here in the United States, for help and for leadership. The world is no longer made up of several separate groups. In the age of the airplane and the atomic bomb, peoples are drawing together through the agency of the United Nations and its various subsidiary committees and organizations. These organizations are working to bring equality to all people, improve the status of women, increase food production and improve its distribution, improve the nutritional status of peoples, increase their technical knowledge available, improve the educational level of peoples. We as homemaking teachers have a part to play in this world wide movement. We can study it. We can be alert to opportunities to help. No longer can we work in one community, in one state, in one country. We must think in worldwide terms as we now live in one world. Should you not as one homemaking teacher do you part?

Look into the future. There are, roughly speaking, three groups of homemaking teachers: one composed of those who expect to teach one or two years; one composed of those who are only teaching until some fortuitous opportunity brings them a change of vocation; and a third composed of those teachers who expect to remain in the profession and hope to progress as far as possible in it. The third group is the professionally significant one. This is the group that plans for further study; that takes an active part in the professional organizations, both local and state; and that looks forward to advancement. To which group are you going to belong? If you plan some form of professional study annually, you will be surprised at your improvement as the years go by. If you leave teaching for some other field, the progress made in teaching will have helped. If you stay in the teaching field you will be ready for advancement. May good fortune be with you!

tion is not a question for discussion here, but the teacher's attitude toward this organization is. Every doctor belongs to his medical association as a matter of course; every lawyer likewise; and every business man of any standing joins the Chamber of Commerce, and often a Rotary, a Lions, a Kiwanis, or some other club also. The Educational Association, the Home Economics Association, and the American Vocational Association are to the home-economics teacher what the American Medical Association and the Chamber of Commerce are to the doctor and the business man; the dues, however, are much less.

You have entered a profession whose organizations you, as a member of that profession, are morally obligated to support. The benefits derived from this support are not always apparent at first, but state and national educational associations have worked for and succeeded in raising the standards for entrance into the teaching profession, namely the certification requirements; they have worked for and gained improved working conditions, such as a maximum of class teaching hours, and tenure of employment. They have influenced curriculums and standards for equipment, and they have developed the teaching profession into one receiving the admiration and respect of the country at large. Home-economics associations, state and national, have worked unceasingly to gain recognition for home economics as a part of the educational plan of the country, to improve methods of teaching, and to raise standards for teaching. These associations are rendering such great service to home-economics teachers that even from a selfish viewpoint it is advisable for every teacher to support them and do her part.

The world outlook. Should you as a homemaking teacher think beyond our own country? The world today as never before is interested in and studying the problems of home living. People the world over are struggling to improve their

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